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ABSTRACT

Papers and critiques are presented which were delivered at a conference designed to stimulate ideas and actions among foundations of education faculty members. Six foundations professors who had experience with Dean's Grant Projects were selected to deliver the papers, while seven foundations professors were chosen to present critiques. The introduction to this publication, by Maynard C. Reynolds, gives an overview of the effects of Public Law 94-142 (Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975) and of the Dean's Grants Program on educational theory courses. In the first paper, "The Mandate for Equity in Education: Another Challenge for Foundational Teacher Preparation," Christopher J. Lucas urges philosophic inquiry into the ambiguities and challenges presented to teachers by Public Law 94-142. Critiques of Lucas' themes are by Donna R. Barnes and Victor L. Worsfold. The second paper, "All the Children of All the People: Public Law 94-142 and America's Proposition for Education," by David Julian Hodges, traces the development of equal education rights for handicapped people and cautions educators about the time needed to accomplish attitude change. Alanson A. Van Fleet responds with a different perspective. The third paper, by Angelo V. Boy, addresses client-centered counseling in "Psychological Foundations of Education: The Teacher as Counselor." Robert L. Hohn presents additional arguments in his critique. A model for the diagnosis of learning characteristics is presented in the fourth paper, "Human Development and Learning: An Individual Differences Perspective," by Ronna F. Dillon. James H. McMillan assesses and comments on Dillon's views. "Implications of Public Law 94-142 for Teacher Education in Measurement and Assessment" is the topic of the fifth paper, by Nona Tollefson. The paper is reviewed by Thomas J. Kelly. In the sixth paper, Homer Page describes his course on "Experiential Education with Special Populations." Jesse Liles evaluates Page's comments. (FG)

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Foundations of Teacher Preparation: Responses to Public Law 94-142

Editor:
Maynard C. Reynolds

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FOREWORD

From the mid-1960s on, the federal government substantially increased its participation in the support of public school programs in the United States. This participation, for the most part, took the form of channeling funds to state and local school districts for the support of narrowly defined groups, such as children who were disadvantaged, bilingual, handicapped, or migrants, and offerings with limited goals, such as the right-to-read program and career education. Funded by discrete, annual appropriations, which carried implications of temporary support, it was inevitable that the programs be regarded as isolated and tentative activities that concerned only the identified children and the specialists in the particular areas. Except for preparing these specialists, few colleges of education took cognizance of the needs of the special populations in teacher-preparation programs. There were few signs that the federal initiatives might represent a fundamental challenge to the schools and that even the foundations aspects of teacher preparation might eventually feel the effects. Both in the public schools and in the teacher-preparation centers the federally supported programs represented a kind of disjointed incrementalism. Each program was predicated upon the assumption that it had no interaction with other programs. Indeed, there often were detailed federal regulations to guarantee that interaction did not occur across programs and special funds were not comingled.

The field of special education had long exhibited its own versions of disjointedness, but this began to change quite rapidly when Congress enacted Public Law 94-142, The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. The law specified that each handicapped pupil must be educated in a setting that is the least restrictive alternative for her or him. That is to say, children with handicaps are to be retained in regular schools and classrooms whenever doing so is feasible; special educators should deliver whatever "special education and related services" may be needed to the children in such mainstream settings. It was evident immediately that regular classroom teachers would have to carry the primary responsibility for instructing these special children. Unfortunately, most of the teachers were not well prepared to deal with pupils whose educational needs and behaviors exceeded the range previously identified as normal. In addition, the law raised questions about the adequacy of basic concepts and procedures which for generations had undergirded public education.

It became clear to many educators, consequently, that the law required fundamental changes in the conception of education to make public schools responsive to the intent of the law, and that comparable changes would be

required in the preparation of teachers. The problems so generated could no longer be shifted to the few teachers and professors of special education who practiced at the margins of the schools and colleges: The problems were pervasive and basic in nature.

It was in this context that the U. S. Department of Education instituted in 1975 the Dean's Grant Program to encourage teacher-education institutions to adapt their preparation programs to accord with the principles and conditions set forth in Public Law 94-142. Through this program, deans of education are awarded relatively small grants for Dean's Grant Projects (DGPs) to support faculty development and curricular change activities to improve teacher education. The National Support Systems Project (NSSP) also was funded, beginning in 1975, to provide technical assistance to the colleges awarded the grants.

As part of its support of DGPs, the NSSP organized a small conference in Denver in the spring of 1982 to bring together some 60 representatives of foundations of education faculties in teacher-preparation programs. These faculty members were all from colleges and universities where DGPs were operating. The purpose of the conference and this publication is to help to stimulate ideas and actions among foundations of education faculty members that will make schools more inclusive of students with exceptional needs and teachers more accepting of diversity among students.

After obtaining information on individual faculty members who had been particularly helpful in DGPs, NSSP invited six foundations professors, each from a different field, to present major papers, and seven to serve as reactors to the papers. The conference was organized according to a round table format. Following the delivery of each paper and its critique(s), discussion went around the table of presenters and reactors and then was opened to the entire audience. Before submitting the papers for publication, each author had the chance to revise his presentation to take account of the discussions. As a result, all major papers and reactions are thoughtful, seminal, and valuable contributions to the literature on changing teacher education for the future.

Although, according to Chris Lucas, few education students take more than one or two foundations of education courses during their training, the experience is highly valued. In an NEA (1967) study, for example, teachers were found to be quite critical in general of the classroom preparation they had received. Nevertheless, a majority expressed approval of their foundations studies, specifically, "psychology of learning and teaching" (69% approval); "human growth and development" (73%); and "history and philosophy of education" (68%). Methods courses received less approval.

The consensus of the Denver conference participants was that given the kinds of expectations for teachers that are expressed in public policies, for

example, Public Law 94-142, more space should be made available in teacher-preparation curricula for foundations study. As the name implies, foundations courses provides the historical, philosophical, ethical, and social science base for understanding not only the forms public school education take but, also, and perhaps more important, what goes on in classrooms and why teachers react to classroom behaviors the way they do. Dan Lortie,[1] in his remarkably perceptive book about teachers, noted that unlike other professionals, teachers serve what he called an "apprenticeship-of-observation" during their years as students.

> The apprenticeship-of-observation undergone by all who enter teaching begins the process of socialization in a particular way; it acquaints students with the tasks of the teacher and fosters the development of identification with teachers. It does not, however, lay the basis for informed assessment of teaching technique or encourage the development of analytic orientations toward the work. Unless beginning teachers undergo training experiences which offset their individualistic and traditional experiences, the occupation will be staffed by people who have little concern with building a shared technical culture. In the absence of such a culture, the diverse histories of teachers will play a cardinal role in their day-to-day activity. In that respect, the apprenticeship-of-observation is an ally of continuity rather than of change. (p. 67)

We no longer can be satisafied with teachers who simply model themselves after the "good teachers" of their own experience. One of the purposes of education is to prepare students to adapt to future changes. Indeed, important changes already have taken place in social and educational policies and in the number and nature of pedagogical principles established through research and exemplary practice. Thus, strong and far-reaching programs in foundations of education as well as in pedagogy are essential to give teachers the intellectual and emotional foundation they need to work with all kinds of children now and in the future.

Given the nature of their profession, foundations faculty members face two directions simultaneously: (a) to the disciplines they represent (history, philosophy, anthropology, sociology, psychology, etc.) and (b) to the practical needs and policies of the schools. It is their special responsibility to bridge the gap between disciplines and schools, between theoretical knowledge and practical operations, creatively and productively. Public Law 94-142 has required, even if indirectly, the major reconceptualization of teacher education, including a broader base of knowledge from the disciplines

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[1] D.C. Lortie. Schoolteacher: A sociological study. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.

for use in classrooms. It is up to the foundations courses to forge the constructs that will link research and scholarship with the practices of teaching.

The conference, which was part of the process of developing the ideas expressed in this book, was possible because of the good cooperation and assistance of many people. I thank them all, and especially Dean Dale Scannell, University of Kansas; Dean Richard Turner, University of Colorado; Prof. Bert Sharp, University of Florida; all the presenters and critics; and Charlie Lakin, Bonnie Warhol and Karen Lundholm of our NSSP offices. Special thanks go to Sylvia Rosen for editing this volume. Finally, I would like to express my thanks to George Hagerty and Tom Behrens of the U. S. Department of Education for their encouragement of this project and the many different activities conducted by the National Support Systems Project.

Maynard C. Reynolds
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THE MANDATE FOR EQUITY IN EDUCATION: ANOTHER CHALLENGE FOR FOUNDATIONAL TEACHER PREPARATION

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ABSTRACT:-The foundations of education are those sub-disciplines and area studies whose function in teacher preparation is the development of interpretive, normative, and critical perspectives on the theory and practice of education. They are used not so much to engender pedagogical expertise directly as to enlarge understanding of the educational enterprise in all its ramifications. At present and for the foreseeable future, this component in teacher-education programs likely will be circumscribed by the same "life-space" constraints that affect other programmatic elements. Philosophic inquiry in education represents one among several of the educational foundations. Its nature and role have been widely misunderstood, owing in part to shifting conceptions in general philosophy and, in part, to the difference between "public" and "professional" expectations in the field. Explored briefly are the elements of a philosophic critique of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (Public Law 94-142) and the possible contributions of philosophic inquiry, in terms of conceptual and linguistic analysis, normative argumentation, and socio-political criticism. Questions surrounding the enactment and subsequent implementation of Public Law 94-142, it is concluded, supply ample material for further philosophic investigation and elucidation.

Dr. Lucas is Professor of Education Studies at the University of Missouri-Columbia. He is Past President of the American Educational Studies Association and former Executive Secretary of the Council for Learned Societies In Education. His primary research interest is in the philosophy of education in teacher education.

The enactment of Public Law 94-142 in 1975 signaled the opening of a new chapter in the history of efforts to extend equal educational opportunity to a heretofore excluded and deprived population--handicapped children. Of the many federal initiatives in education in recent years, The Education For All Handicapped Children Act probably is the most far-reaching. Both the problems and potential benefits entailed by implementation of the Act are enormous. It remains to be seen whether such legislation will at long last extend the help and support its intended beneficiaries deserve or, as former President Gerald Ford warned, promise more than can be delivered. Embodied in the law's mandate for educational equity are challenges to long-established usage. Ultimately, radical changes will be required in existing administrative and organizational structures, curricula and instruction, and teacher preparation if its intent is to be realized successfully. This monumental undertaking has barely begun. Yet if the reconstitution of American education is attended by a searching re-examination of the fundamental issues involving school purpose and process, the consequences may turn out to be as salutary as they will be profound.

How the foundational component of teacher education and the disciplines represented therein can contribute to a fuller understanding of the questions surrounding Public Law 94-142 is examined in this chapter. The discussion focuses on the nature and function of educational foundations in programs of teacher preparation; their prospects in such programs; changing conceptions of philosophy of education as one among several educational foundational areas; and the issues or elements of a philosophic critique posed by the effort to provide appropriate education for all handicapped children in the least restrictive environment possible.

FOUNDATIONAL COMPONENTS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

The term "educational foundations" or "foundations of education" is commonly employed to refer to those humanistic studies that link the theory and practice of education with insights from other social-science disciplines and the humanities, for example, philosophy of education, history of education, sociology of education, and so on (Birch, Grohs, Howsam, et al., 1980). They do not produce any specific pedagogical expertise per se, that is, they are not intended to teach people how to teach; rather, they provide a context or framework for the better understanding of the educational enterprise. Drawing upon the conceptual apparatus, modes of inquiry, and data developed from other disciplinary perspectives, educational foundations help to illuminate the broader meaning of theories, policies, and practices in education. The expectation, of course, is that improved theoretical comprehension will lead to more intelligent, informed practice, but the connection between the two is neither always immediate nor direct.

The best approximation to an authoritative characterization of foundational studies appears in the Preamble to the "Standards for Academic and Professional Instruction in Foundations of Education, Educational Studies and Educational Policy Studies" (AESA, 1977-78), drafted under the auspices of the American Educational Studies Association (AESA) and endorsed by several other learned and professional education societies. The text, in part, reads as follows:

> The Foundations of Education refers to a broadly-conceived field of study that derives its character and fundamental theories from a number of academic disciplines, combination of disciplines, and area studies: history, philosophy, sociology, anthropology, religion, political science, economics, psychology, comparative and international education, educational studies, and educational policy studies....An overarching and profoundly important academic and professional purpose unifies persons who identify with...Foundations of Education, namely, the development of interpretive, normative and critical perspectives on education ...(pp. 336-337).

Periodically, however, calls are renewed for educational foundations to become more "practical" and immediately "relevant" to the work of teacher preparation. Sometimes the demand is for theories that are susceptible to application in concrete situations which classroom novices are soon likely to confront. More broadly, it is claimed, instruction in foundations courses should be linked closely with the exigencies of school practice (Berwald, 1980). Not all foundational specialists would necessarily disagree, although they would be apt to differ on matters of strategy. In any event, prospects for success (especially as regards the mandate of The Education For all Handicapped Children Act of 1975) will depend upon several critical factors. Among them are (a) the place occupied by foundational components in preservice teacher education as presently constituted; (b) the actual organization and content of instruction now offered; and (c) the avowed intent--the self-perceptions of purpose and function--of faculty members who teach foundational courses. These variables provide a "baseline," as it were, against which proposals for change must be assessed.

The Organization and Function of Educational Foundations

It is worth noting at the outset that foundational teacher-educators in recent years appear to have been forced into a somewhat defensive stance. In an era when the impetus has been to reconceptualize teacher training in "competency-based" or performance-based" terms, many persons have found it difficult, if not impossible, to effect an appropriate translation of the

"development of interpretive, normative, and critical perspectives" in education. Given already overcrowded curricula and increasing politicization of the decisions governing what will be included in teacher-education programs, many faculty members whose stock-in-trade is theoretical knowledge are uneasy also over pressures to de-emphasize theory in favor of clincial experience. Some of them fear that when the stress is on pedagogical technique, the potential contribution of interpretive, normative, and critical contextual knowledge is likely to be underestimated and to go unappreciated. Significantly, most attempts to develop a common "body of practice" for teachers emphasize what the classroom practitioner should be able to do, rather than what he or she should know (Birch et al., 1980). Hence the potential for an erosion of educational foundations as a vital element of programs is judged to be quite substantial. Lacking an adequate foundational component, or so it is argued, professional teacher education all too easily could degenerate into a rudimentary form of apprenticeship training.

External criteria mandating the inclusion of foundations courses, therefore, assume special significance. Academic and professional considerations aside, the political legitimacy, so to speak, of the foundational component derives from the "humanistic and behavioral studies" standard of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the 1977 AESA Standards. In neither document, however, is it specified how compliance with the provisions is to be achieved. Nor does either define the foundational component, except in the broadest possible terms. Not surprisingly, how, and to what extent, the foundations of education are incorporated within teacher education programs differ greatly from one institution to another.

Until recently, judgments on the state of educational foundations have been largely conjectural or based on a limited range of institutional experience. With three partial exceptions (Jones, 1972; Lucas, 1979; Wirsing, 1976) relevant empirical research on a national scale has been virtually lacking. A more recent survey (Lucas, 1981), however, which encompasses a large stratified sample of the estimated 1033 schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs) that offered teacher-education programs as of 1979-80, has proven more revealing. A brief summary of its principal findings is instructive for present purposes.

Professional education coursework, it is clear, accounts for only a modest percentage of the total hours required for the completion of a baccalaureate degree in education. Thus, for example, among reporting SCDEs, the total semester-credit-hours required ranged from 120 to 139 and averaged 124 hours. The mean total number of hours of required coursework in education for elementary majors was 31; for secondary education majors, they averaged 24, exclusive of clinical experiences. Expressed as percentages of the

total hours required, the figures were 25% and 20% respectively. These results tend to confirm the earlier findings of Lewin & Associates (1977) and Haberman and Stinnett (1975) who found that elementary education majors, on the average, were obliged to complete 37.5 hours in professional studies and secondary education majors, 25.4 hours, exclusive of field experiences.

Obligatory coursework in educational foundations typically includes an even smaller number of the total requisite credit hours, averaging no more than 4.77, or something less than the equivalent of 2 3-hour-credit courses; as a percentage of total degree hours, the mean was 3.8. Elementary majors complete no more than an average of 15.5% of required education coursework in foundations; secondary majors, 19.6%. Furthermore, the findings suggest that in the majority of cases, these percentages can be accounted for by a single course in educational foundations! Only among larger SCDEs are education majors required to take additional coursework in the field.

Where only a single course is required, it typically is in the form of a low-level, multipurpose introduction to the field. Judging from the omnibus textbooks most often adopted in such courses, its content is apt to be extra-ordinarily broad and to include a potpourri of topics, issues, concepts, and subject matter: A survey of education as a field of study and a practical endeavor; teaching as a career; brief treatments of aims, methodologies, and prevailing management structures; segments of a philosophical, historical, sociological and legal character; and, perhaps, a necessarily cursory overview of selected issues or trends in education (significantly, Public Law 94-142 is rarely mentioned). Overall, the scope of coverage virtually precludes much in-depth analysis of any given topic.

Approximately 60% of all SCDEs surveyed offer a required "Introduction to Education" course. When students are given options or must complete a second course in order to satisfy a foundational requirement, program offerings include, in order of frequency, philosophy of education (58%), history of American education (40%), curriculum theory (39%), psychology of education (35%), issues and trends in education (34%), school law (29%), social foundations of education (28%), multicultural education (27%), school organization and management theory (25%), sociology of education (19%), history of educational thought (15%), and several others.

Faculty members who teach foundations of education courses do not agree on how undergraduate instruction in the field should be organized. When asked to select from among four generically different approaches to educational courses, almost half (46%) chose stress on "concepts and issues" in education. About one-fifth (22%) favored courses reflecting interdisciplinary approaches to the subject matter. Approximately 15% cited a preference for coursework patterned after established academic disciplines (e.g., history, philosophy, sociology, etc.). The balance opted for courses organized around the problems and concerns of other teacher-educators in

such fields as curriculum and instruction, guidance and counseling, administration, and so on.

Similar disagreements are apparent regarding instructional objectives and desired learning outcomes. Most foundational specialists identified "broad theoretical understanding, contextual knowledge," and "scholarly insight" as their primary focus of concern. "Principles...directive of policy and practice" were stressed by a smaller number of respondents. Ranked last by 13% of those surveyed was "specific pedagogical expertise, rules, norms, applicative knowledge and skills." Fully 82% of the responses from all SCDEs identified "critical analysis" of educational phenomena as the most appropriate purpose of foundational coursework. Another 10% viewed the predominant function to be the "neutral, objective, or disinterested" description of educational phenomena. No more than 1% viewed the purpose of coursework in educational foundations to be didactic or one of advocating specific reforms. The balance of the responses fell into a "miscellaneous" category.

Several possible conclusions are suggested by the findings. (a) The "typical" undergraduate pre-service teacher-preparation program leading to initial certification requires the completion of only one course in foundations of education. In three out of every four SCDEs surveyed, students are enrolled in a common course. (b) When only one such course is required, probabilities favor its being a broad descriptive survey or overview of the field of education. (c) When students take additional coursework or select from among options, they are most likely to enroll in a philosophy of education course. (d) Regardless of the course, very few instructors attempt to instill in students any discrete pedagogical competence. For most instructors, the purpose of foundational instruction is neither simply to describe education nor to urge specific reforms in it, but to help students analyze and understand various issues, trends, and problems. This attitude might indicate a potential willingness among educational foundations people to engage issues connected with mainstreaming and Public Law 94-142 but, overall, opportunities to do so may be somewhat circumscribed.

Additionally, it was found that in public institutions only 40% of instructors who teach foundations courses received their highest degree in that field. For private SCDEs, the percentage fell even lower (to 21%), making for a combined weighted average of 29%. Hence, in an "average" SCDE, chances are less than one out of three that a faculty member teaching a course in educational foundations actually majored in that field at the graduate level. Several considerations probably account for this situation, not the least among them being, perhaps, a widespread belief that practically anyone can teach a foundations of education course.

However constrained may be the "life-space" in undergraduate teacher education, the competition for time, place, and attention among the founda-

tional components of preparatory programs is, if anything, still more acute. Reflecting the same specialization that is common to other fields, scholars in foundations tend to resist the tendency toward compression evidenced by interdisciplinary "social foundations of education" courses in which depth is sacrificed to scope or breadth of coverage. Particularly at larger SCDEs, discipline-oriented specialists constantly vie for what they consider their rightful and essential place in programs. Educational philosophers insist that all prospective educators have an adequate grounding in their discipline before they are loosed upon the public schools. Historians of education are equally reluctant to leave initiates bereft of some meaningful historical perspective. Sociologists of education likewise lament the alleged neglect of their subject matter. Comparativists wax indignant over the fact that teacher candidates are innocent of any cross-cultural understanding of educational phenomena. There is consensus only on the point that a single multidisciplinary "invertebrate" is insufficient and that additional foundational coursework should not be deferred until teachers return for graduate training.

Educational Foundations and the Reform of Teacher Education

The Scylla-Charybdis dilemmas of pre-service undergraduate teacher education are too painfully familiar to bear lengthy rehearsal. Despite recurrent allegations (possibly not entirely unfounded) of needless content duplication and watered-down courses, teacher-educators constantly feel compelled to expand or extend preparatory training. Either thrust generates formidable countervailing pressure. On the one hand, the question is how much additional professional preparation is genuinely needed to foster improved methodological competence. Discussion of the question is greatly acerbated by the ever-lengthening list of curricular accretions in schools which were brought on by various and sundry societal ills: sexism, racism, economic inequality, illiteracy, domestic instability, unemployment, injustice, urban unrest, social disorder and lawlessness, drug abuse, crime, juvenile delinquency, sexual permissiveness, litigiousness, corruption, and so on *ad infinitum*; all likewise impact upon teacher education (Haberman, 1981; Mackey, 1981). On the other hand, the issue is at what sacrifice new programs can be devised to respond to these very real needs.

Unfortunately, so long as the notion persists that for every societal problem there must be a school response, and so long as professional educators accede to the public clamor for institutionalized education to add on new responsibilities, the range of school programs will increase. This proliferation of curricula in turn imposes new burdens on teacher preparation (Hilliard, 1981). Ryan (1980) observed, "As each new emphasis is shoe-horned

into an already crowded curriculum, teacher education also expands. Usually the important new mission is stretched out to form a thin veneer of curricular content and is added to the teacher education program like another layer of onion skin" (p. 73).

As new social-engineering objectives strain the "onion-skin" teacher-education curriculum, almost ineluctable pressures are generated to expand professional training at the expense of general education (Mitzel, 1980). Then the problem becomes one of finding an optimal trade-off between broad, general instruction in academic disciplines and technical training geared expressly to the needs of future classroom practitioners. Traditional academicians, it could be argued, tend to underestimate the need for the latter, whereas beleaguered teacher-educators lack sufficient appreciation of the former.

Inasmuch as teachers clearly need more and better preparatory training, the knowledge, skills, and habits of mind engendered by general education are also critical (Berwald, 1980). It should be needless to add, teachers must acquire thorough competency in the subjects they teach. Even granting that pre-service teacher education offers minimal preparation at best, the argument could be made that not all essential professional competencies can or should be taught directly. Obviously, the need for a better configuration of all elements--one balancing out general studies, pre-professional education in undergirding disciplines, instruction in subject-matter specialities, professional training, and clinical experience--is as essential as it has so far proven elusive; and experimentation will likely continue (Denemark, Morsink, & Thomas, 1980). Whether fundamental and far-reaching reform or ad hoc cosmetic alterations will prevail remains to be determined.

Meanwhile, the expedient seized upon by many teacher-educators is to extend preparatory programs (Dunbar, 1981; Scannell & Gunther, 1981). Again, such proposals have generated a voluminous literature and need not be reviewed here. Some critics argue that extended training would merely provide "more of the same" and serve to delay the radical restructuring needed in contemporary teacher training. Others question whether the added cost might not eliminate otherwise qualified low-income students and, for example, discourage many minority candidates from seeking admission to the teaching profession (Gallegos, 1981). For these and other reasons, five-year programs would not be feasible for many SCDEs in either the public or private sector of American higher education.

More likely in the immediate foreseeable future are trends that simply will exacerbate present difficulties. Stedman (1980), among others, observed that as school enrollments decline, a decreased demand for teachers will follow. Current economic conditions probably will continue, even as the cost of sustaining teacher-education programs increases. Public support for

teacher education will not improve and, accordingly, available resources likely will shrink or, at best, remain at their present patently inadequate levels. Any dramatic improvements in programs are therefore unlikely. Competition among SCDEs to offer minimally acceptable preparatory training will almost certainly intensify, as will competition among local, regional, state, and national organizations and SCDEs for the inservice teacher-education market. The trend toward the shaping of pre-service curricula by external agencies rather than SCDE faculty will continue unabated and, quite possibly, will accelerate in the future (Roth, 1981).

Viewed against the backdrop of these trends and bearing in mind the "life-space" strictures of today's teacher-education programs, the future of educational foundations appears problematic. If the now-fashionable positivist ideology that predominates in teacher education persists, if public demands for accountability encourage reliance upon reductionist methodology to define and then solve questions of pedagogical technique and evaluation, and if efficiency-productivity criteria continue to control organizational management, the foundations of education will languish. They will be consigned to the periphery of teacher preparation like a vestigial atavism or given a purely ceremonial role that is, in no real sense, "foundational" to anything else.

A less likely but actual possibility, nonetheless, is that educational foundations will retain their place in teacher education or achieve still greater importance. Already there are indications that foundational scholars are beginning (albeit reluctantly) to recognize the political character of many decision-making processes that control teacher-education curricula, and are organizing for action accordingly. State and national organizations in the field are taking an increasingly activist role vis-à-vis accrediting agencies and state departments of education, working to protect, if not enlarge, the mandated foundational component in preparatory programs. No longer content to rely on collegial courtesy or to exist at the sufferance of their fellow teacher-educators, many foundations specialists are taking a "proactive" rather than purely "reactive" role in pressing for more and higher quality foundations coursework as an integral element in teacher preparation.

In the aftermath of so much criticism which has been levied against present-day teacher education programs from all quarters, growing skepticism toward the value of competency-based teacher education (CBTE) in all its variant forms, and dawning appreciation of the complexity of teaching and learning phenomena, many other teacher educators have come to endorse the foundational component as much-needed in the professional development of tomorrow's educators. Cremin (1965) summed it up some time ago as follows:

> Education is too significant and dynamic an enterprise to be left to mere technicians; and we might as well begin now the prodigious

task of preparing men and women who understand not only the substance of what they are teaching but also the theories behind the particular strategies they employ to convey that substance. (p. 59)

PUBLIC AND PROFESSIONAL PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION RECONSIDERED

Inasmuch as philosophy of education figures so prominently in foundations of education, it is worth considering in some detail, particularly with respect to how this field for scholarly inquiry and its course content may address problems related to Public Law 94-142. The issue is rather complex because the nature and role of philosophy in education have been the subject of so much popular misunderstanding.

In his introduction to the 1981 Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Soltis (1981) iterates a distinction between philosophy as a noun, designating products of inquiry, and as a verb, comprising processes or "activities of elucidation, argument, critique, clarification, analysis, synthesis, and so forth aimed at reflecting on how we think about the world and our actions in it" (pp. 2-3). For Soltis, the distinction underscores what he terms the serious "mismatch" between popular expectations of philosophy of education and what in recent decades its academic practitioners have been prepared to deliver. Thus, for example, educators (including teacher educators) frequently perceive its proper function to be the articulation of beliefs and values to support particular objectives and methodologies in school practice (e.g., a "personal" philosophy of education adhered to by an individual teacher, or "a philosophy of mainstreaming" or "a philosophy for individualizing instruction" etc.). Alternatively, its business is understood as rendering explicit the contemporary "applications" of pedagogical wisdom culled from the great minds of the past (e.g., "John Dewey's educational philosophy" or "Plato's philosophy of education"). Again, reflecting long-established usage in the way philosophy of education courses have been taught, its task is taken to be one of deriving educational "implications from various full-blown Weltanschauungen, or speculative worldviews, from which, presumably, the educator picks and chooses guidance for classroom practice (e.g., realism, idealism, pragmatism, existentialism, etc.).

Confusion arises, consequently, when many philosophers evince skepticism of the practicality of any such undertaking. Following the trend in general philosophy, increasing numbers have been less inclined to build or interpret systems of philosophy and more to engage in the piecemeal analysis of particular issues, concepts, and problems (e.g., "equality of educational opportunity" or "teaching" or "competencies" etc.). Clearly, and for some time, the tendency has been away from conceiving of philosophy in the nomina-

tive sense of doctrines, "isms," and systems of thought, and more toward the "verb" sense of philosophizing as activity and process.

The shift in what it means to "do" philosophy undoubtedly has contributed to the lack of synchrony between expectation and delivery. Also (in what amounts to the same thing) it enhances the separation between the "professional" sense of philosophizing as a technical, increasingly specialized enterprise and the broader, more traditional "public" conception of philosophy of education as a set of pronouncements on school purposes, policies, and practices. This lack of congruence, of course, is by no means unique to philosophy of education. The same disjunction affects general philosophy and, for that matter, many other fields of scholarly endeavor as well. But thanks to a number of particular historical, social, and institutional factors, the gap between what lay people expect and what, in fact, educational philosophers are about is especially pronounced. The divergence is the source of occasional professional frustration and, quite likely, much popular mystification.

Reduced to its simplest terms, the predicament of philosophy of education is that, Janus-like, it faces two ways at once. It speaks "to philosophers of education, that is, the academic guild whose members teach courses in the field...but it also speaks to educators at all levels of schooling. It is concerned with problems of philosophy on the one hand, and with problems of schooling on the other" (Broudy, 1981, pp. 15-16). This duality of audiences and tasks results in profound differences in language, interest, and channels of communication.

Considering the difference in constituencies, part of the tension between how educational philosophy is sustained as a domain of academic inquiry and how it is received by its primary audience--prospective and practicing educators--can be expected. Discourse within the guild is inclined to be more technical, abstract, and esoteric than talk outside academe. Among themselves, specialists in the field tend to focus on the more recondite features of logical argumentation and conceptualization whereas popular discussion cannot properly be expected to exhibit the same level of precision or sophistication.

It is unreasonable, some argue, to expect non-philosophers to understand or appreciate the niceties of professional disputation. Further, when novices misconstrue what it is philosophers do, their misunderstanding is entirely benign and, perforce, easily resolved. Confusion is dispelled when the uninitiated better understand the basic structures, programs, and strategies of inquiry that define the discipline. In short, the presumed remedy is better philosophic instruction.

Nonetheless, as it turns out, even when the induction process is well-advanced, the philosopher's therapeutic analysis often goes unappreciated;

and many educational practitioners still fail to discern the relevance of the philosophic cure to their presumed philosophical ailments. In other words, lay people often are left disappointed with what philosophy has to offer. And not all their disappointment can be accounted for by simple naiveté, impatience, or a predilection for a quick "fix" for each and every educational dilemma.

The argument offered here is that the gap between "professional" and "public" philosophy of education is not quite analogous to the difference between, say, "academic" and "pop" sociology, or academic and popular psychology. On the contrary, not all lay expectations of philosophic inquiry are uniformly illegitimate or somehow misplaced. There may be valid reasons why the preoccupations of professional philosophers of education elicit such impressive public indifference and why, to all appearances, intellectual excitement among educators is generated elsewhere. In the following section I briefly explore the reasons behind public antipathy or indifference toward much of what passes for philosphy today. Not all educational philosophers would agree with the thesis to be presented, which well may be part of the problem. But having tried to account for why so much educational philosophy has evolved the way it has in recent years, we may be in a better position to defend a particular conception of what it can do relative to the perplexities and challenges inherent in Public Law 94-142 and related legislation. My abbreviated account necessarily entails consideration of the direction taken by general philosophy itself over the past half century or so because philosophy of education to some extent has experienced a similar transformation.

Shifts in General Philosophy

Non-philosophers often complain that philosophy is obscure, remote, trivial, and boring. Even within the guild, one increasingly finds critics who allege that many colleagues, esconced in their ivory towers, appear obsessed with trifles. Crabbed in expression and needlessly technical in utterances, they are given to discoursing at excruciating length on the obvious; and when the result is served up, it makes for thin gruel indeed. They forget, or so it is said, that a platitude is not converted into a profundity by being dressed up as a conundrum. One example is a recent analysis that labors to the unremarkable conclusion that if Person A is teaching something to Person B, then it is probably true that A intends that B should learn that something (McClellan, 1976). In their zeal for logical purity they give the appearance, to invoke Engel's delightful pun (1980), of "drifting away on thin Ayer" (p. 345).

More serious perhaps was Kaplan's judgment (1970) that in the philosophic community there is scant excitement, little thrill of discovery, almost no

evangelical fervor, and not much sense of what Alfred North Whitehead once termed the "adventure of ideas." So it appears, at any rate, in contrast with the condition of philosophy at other times and in other places. Likewise, Kaplan continued, philosophers have little impact on the culture at large; their very names are comparatively unknown. For the most part, philosophical ideas are of no particular interest outside the profession. John Dewey (1946), writing a generation ago, likewise observed,

> The work that once gave its name to philosophy, Search for Wisdom, has progressively receded into the background. For wisdom differs from knowledge in being the application of what is known to intelligent conduct of the affairs of human life. The straits of philosophy are due to the fact that the more this available knowledge has increased, the more it has occupied itself with a task that is no longer humanly pertinent. (p. 7)

Dewey's indictment sounds a distinctly contemporary note. He continued,

> For practical problems that are so deeply human as to be the moral issues of the present time have increased their range and their intensity. They cover practically every aspect of contemporary life....But during the same period in which this has occurred, philosophy, for the most part, has relegated them to a place that is subordinate and accessory....The net neglect of issues that are remote from active human concern explains the popular discredit into which philosophy has progressively fallen. This disrepute is in turn a decided factor in determining its role in the world.... (p. 7)

Again, it was Bertrand Russell (1959) who once complained that philosophers nowadays concern themselves "only with the different ways in which silly people can say silly things" (p. 230). Harsher still was Ernest Gellner's judgment (1959) that "linguistic philosophy corrupts no one. What it does is bore them" (p. 218). Many other critics have professed to detect an unmistakeable trend toward formalism and empty scholasticism in much contemporary philosophic thought. From a lively engagement with substantive issues, it is claimed, the love of wisdom has degenerated into an involuted preoccupation with academic conceits far removed from ideas animating real controversy and the affairs that populate the life of humankind.

Obviously, any adequate assessment of these and other charges that philosophy has grown "irrelevant" lies beyond the purview of a single chapter. Suffice it to say, and at the risk of outrageous oversimplification, a number of developments account for the radical restructuring of academic philosophy in the twentieth century and popular reactions to that redefinition. Among them, must be counted the influence of positivism and its insistence that the meaning of a proposition hinges on whether it is either true "by defini-

tion" or susceptible to empirical verification; increasing sensitivity to language and its misuse as the source of many traditional philosophic problems; the popularity of emotivist ethical theory and its claim that moral judgments, because they cannot be confirmed, express subjective tastes and preferences rather than meaningful items of knowledge, and a host of other factors.

Persuaded that philosophy is incompetent to render intelligible metaphysical or normative claims, Gilbert Ryle (1963), for example, argued that analysis was the sole function of philosophy, taking the form of "detection of the sources in linguistic idioms of recurrent misconstructions and absurd theories" (Flew, 1951, p. 36). The challenge, Ryle argued, is not to increase what we know, but to rectify the "logical geography" of the knowledge we already possess. By examining the "behavior" of the concepts employed for expressing what we already know in a dim and confused way, we come to understand it more clearly. The philosopher enjoys no special competency to pronounce upon the nature and meaning of existence or to advance a moral argument on behalf of any given position. In the absence of any other good office to perform, therefore, the major task of philosophy, according to Ryle and many other Anglo-American analysts, was taken to be one of explaining and disciplining the logical forms and linguistic expressions of argumentation. But on this account, philosophy has no warrant for trying to give it any particular direction.

Ludwig Wittgenstein likewise sought to show that the philosophic function is exclusively therapeutic, directed to the clearing up of logical and linguistic confusions. The philosopher's job, he believed, is not to reform or change in any way the use of language, only to describe it, thus leaving everything as it is. On one reading at least, Wittgenstein came to accept the notion that analytic propositions (i.e., formal statements in logic and mathematics) and empirical statements (e.g., "scientific" descriptions and predictions about natural phenomena and events) are co-terminus with knowledge and jointly exhaust what in principle is knowable. Everything that can be clearly thought and said are allegedly encompassed by these two sorts of utterances. As for everything else, he observed in his famous uphorism, "Whereof we cannot speak, thereof we must be silent" (Bullock, 1980).

The impact upon what it meant to "do" philosophy was far-reaching. Increasingly, the tendency among professional philosophers was to remain silent on substantive issues of morality, on issues of choice centering on right and wrong, good and bad. On the so-called "ultimate" problems of life, philosophers also would have little to say. The focus instead was upon second-order concerns or what one can say about significant issues and problems, not the problems themselves. Characteristically, the point of philosophic inquiry was not to advance or support a reasoned moral judgment but

to explore the logical and linguistic requirements for doing so; not to deal with a knowledge claim as such but with the grounds upon which any such claim must rest; not to build a case for something but to elucidate how a case could be constructed.

Inevitably, the popular impression was reinforced that philosophy had shifted from matters of substance to a preoccupation with logic and language, that it somehow was concerned "only with words." Although ordinary-language analysts emphatically rejected the charge, the fact remained that much philosophy, as commonly practiced, became remote in both form and content from any major idea or assumption outside certain narrow branches of logic, linguistics, and mathematics. Ostensibly, philosophers continued to wrestle with the same issues they always had, though in new guise. But invariably, the proximate subject was how people talk or should talk. Some of this interest has changed in recent decades, and the scope of what is taken to be legitimate philosophical issues has been broadened considerably or more generously redefined. Nonetheless, when lay people look to philosophers for answers to traditional philosophic problems or for counsel on what they should do, they are apt to get back only more questions. And when the popular demand is for practical "wisdom," philosphers may reply that they have none to offer. Mystified, the public is led to conclude philosophy is a very opaque and esoteric business indeed. The same aura of reconditeness, unfortunately, often surrounds philosophy of education as well.

Educational Philosophy and Relevance

I noted earlier that philosophers of education are often called upon to address the practical concerns of educators. If what educational philosophers do is not directly related to "real-life" school issues, some will argue, then they are derelict in their duty at worst and superfluous at best. The typical response among professional philosophers is two-fold: (a) Not all educational problems lend themselves to direct treatment and (b) the demand for immediate practicality is at once misconceived and obscures the very real contribution philosophic inquiry has to offer.

Some educational issues require extensive analysis and discussion before they admit of solutions and occasionally their implications for the classroom are virtually nonexistent, or so far down the road that they might as well be nonexistent (Siegel, 1981). Such problems or issues must be evaluated on their own merits. A problem may be crucially important for understanding education without having any immediate practical ramifications. Furthermore, the lack of such ramifications ought not to count against the importance or worth of such a problem.

Not all scholarly endeavor produces direct practical effects. Basic

theoretical research in any given field, for example physics or astronomy, need not eventuate in a practical consequence or "payoff." That fact alone fails to warrant the abandonment of basic research itself. Analogously, it is not at all obvious that philosophy of education should impact directly on educational practice. Philosophers of history, for example, in general do not attempt to alter the course of events any more than philosophers of science seek directly to affect or redirect the conduct of scientific investigation. So, too, it could be argued, the test for the validity of philosophizing about education need not be whether it generates directives or principles for classroom conduct.

What philosophy of education seeks is philosophical understanding of education. Siegel (1981) phrased it as follows:

> Deepened understanding of education may well provide clarity and motivation enough to effect significant educational change, but such practical effects are in an important sense by-products of the original quest for understanding. Such by-products need not have been hoped for in advance, and their absence would not in the least diminish the worth of the understanding gained through philosophical reflection. (p. 127)

On the other hand, nothing precludes philosophers of education from having practical things to say about and suggestions for ordinary, everyday educational concerns. A philosopher of education, for instance, might attempt to draft curricula on moral education that reflects some larger notion of the nature of moral judgments in general. He or she might issue policy recommendations based on a theory of social justice, equity, or organizational change. But in doing so the philosopher is not functioning qua philosopher; the policy directives or curricular strategies and so forth enjoy no special standing or claim to authoritativeness except insofar as they are rooted in some broad, contextual philosophical framework aimed at helping people to understand their implications.

The problem, perhaps, is that many philosophers of education are seemingly reluctant even to begin with a real-life problem or issue. The tendency, instead, is to generate problems and issues that are entirely internal to the discipline, without adequate regard for the interplay between theory and educational practice, between the theoretical presuppositions of practice and the practical import of theory. Philosophers have their own specialized concerns in which they are more interested, some scholars allege, and there is no reason to expect these concerns to be of any wider relevance than are those of the physicist, the philologist, or any other academic specialist.

Some years ago, for example, one critic (Lucas, 1971) complained that philosophy of education had grown moribund, out of touch with its constituency, and was lacking in public resonance. In response McClellan (1971)

diagnosed the complaint as a bad case of depression, brought on by reading too much depressing literature. McClellan further accused the critic of harboring simple-minded notions of how philosophy can affect practice or otherwise contribute to the solution of real problems.

McClellan freely conceded that what many educational philosophers do "is not very consequential." Essentially, his argument was that "the language and action of educators reveal questions, puzzles, tensions, ambiguities, and dilemmas" which certain theorists find interesting--in much the same way, one supposes, people enjoy playing chess, working crossword puzzles, or manipulating Rubik cubes. He added, almost as an afterthought, that other educators might possibly find insight and enlightenment in these exercises but that otherwise the best course of action was to leave academics to their own devices. As for the critic, McClellan paraphrased Harry Truman's warning to reluctant politicians: "If you can't stand the cold, get out of the ivory tower" (p. 281).

His position is not without merit. One can argue that there is a sort of self-validating "autonomy" to any legitimate academic enterprise. Scholars should be left to pursue whatever topics they deem fit. Yet, by the same token, other educators are not obliged to accept the protestations of philosophers that they are engaged in something of momentous importance. And when even educational philosophers concede that their work is of little consequence or irrelevant outside the academic guild, then they deserve not only to be left alone but to be ignored, also.

Fortunately, not all philosophers are willing to consign themselves to irrelevance. School people, Broudy (1981) insists, have a right to expect from them reasoned discourse on the meaning and consequences of various alternative policies in education. Educators need the philosophic clarification and elucidation of concepts and arguments that are prominent in the literature of educational controversy where faddism, sloganeering, and bandwagon psychology are so rife. Finally, educators are entitled to expect from at least some writers a synoptic, systematic, and coherent set of beliefs and arguments that deals with the educational enterprise as a whole in some broader setting. Many philosphers aspire to do precisely that.

A beginning may be found when philosophers of education begin listening more attentively and talk to other educators. Greater efforts are needed to address the live issues and concerns that animate public controversy. Popular debate, one hopes, would benefit more from reasoned discussion supplied by philosophers in the forums and arenas "where the action is," than from still-born monographs read chiefly by other specialists. The cleavage between professional and public philosophy of education always will remain, and properly so, but it need not always be an unbridgeable chasm. Just as lay people have an obligation to keep in proper perspective what it is philoso-

phers see as their most appropriate tasks, philosophers have an obligation at some point to speak to what Charles Peirce once called "vital concerns." Failing this, educational philosophy will lose the measure of public resonance that represents an important aspect of its raison d'être.

PUBLIC LAW 94-142: ELEMENTS OF A PHILOSOPHIC CRITIQUE

It remains to examine how philosophy of education as one part of educational foundations might contribute to a better understanding of questions generated by The Education For All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. The preceding section was intended to emphasize that it may be inappropriate for other educators to expect philosophers of education to hand down a set of prescriptions, norms, or directives for practice. Philosophy is unlikely to help teachers and administrators with specifics as they contend with the law's many procedural requirements. It may not directly provide assistance in setting up resource rooms, making decisions on staffing, or facilitating the completion of individualized education plans (IEPs) for students. Nor, except perhaps as "inspirational uplift," can philosophy underwrite a commitment to mainstreaming. What philosophical inquiry can do, however, is to help educators discern the underlying issues, gain a better appreciation of the balancing of contending and sometimes incommensurate values necessitated by the mandate for educational equity, and more broadly, set in perspective what Public Law 94-142 is and is not all about. There follows a brief outline of some of the many elements that could be incorporated in a full-fledged philosophical critique.

School Purpose

The full implications of Public Law 94-142 are just beginning to emerge. One of several sets of questions prompted by this national commitment to "appropriate" education in the "least restrictive" environment feasible for each handicapped child touches on fundamental issues of school purpose: What are schools for? What can they legitimately hope to achieve? Given multiple objectives and finite resources, what are the primary aims of formal education? Upon what basis should priorities be established? What lies in the legitimate purview of the school as an institution, and what functions or goals extend beyond?

Leiberman (1981), for example, questioned the magnitude of the commitment entailed by Public Law 94-142 and its broadening of school responsibilities. "To say that special education has bitten off more than it can chew is like saying that Ulysses had a few skirmishes before returning home to Ithaca" (p. 13). He added, "Special education seems to have taken upon it-

self the Herculean task of reforming regular education and recreating it in its own image" (p. 14).

Answers of a sort to the question of what is essential are now being hammered out in the nation's courts. In what White (1981) termed "an explosion of lawsuits" in the area of education for handicapped pupils, hundreds of cases and due process hearings have been brought before the judiciary since Public Law 94-142 was enacted. Most have had to do with so-called "related services" issues: the legal responsibilities of schools to provide and/or pay for toilet-training, psychotherapy, catheterization services, summer school, and in extremis, residential placement for certain handicapped children. The main question is not so much whether handicapped students are entitled (legally or morally) to special programs and services as it is who should pay for them. Although the U. S. Supreme Court has yet to clarify the scope of handicapped children's federally protected rights or to issue any definite ruling, lower courts have tended to require schools to assume many new functions and full financial responsibility for a very wide spectrum of noneducational needs (McCarthy, 1981).

Inasmuch as prospects for additional school revenues are not promising, as indicated by the enactment of tax-limitation measures and the increasing failure of bond issues and operating levies to win voter approval, a critical issue has been whether a substantial portion of a school system's educational budget should be used to sustain the higher costs. The gravity of the situation is highlighted by court rulings that in certain cases plaintiffs even may seek monetary damages for alleged violations of federal statutory rights.

What controversy has failed to clarify so far is what priorities should be set for different functions. Left unresolved is the larger question of what an educational institution is for, what are its fitting and proper roles. Sometimes the normative questions are not even raised, much less answered, in the arena of public debate.

Educational Rights

Even if Public Law 94-142 should succumb to Reaganomics, the legal mandate it reflects apparently will not likewise be eliminated. Most of its regulations are based on previous court decisions in cases centering on the rights of handicapped children to an equal opportunity for public education (DaSilva, 1981). Thus, although the Constitution does not expressly or implicitly hold public supported school to be a "right," the right still exists by virtue of a property interest--a right of entitlement--arising out of compulsory attendance statutes. When the state requires a child to attend school under threat of penalty, it thereby creates a property right, or right of entitlement, which is protected under the due process guarantee of the Fifth Amendment and the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth.

If the legal status of the mandate is reasonably clear (in principle if not in all particulars), the ethical considerations that underlie and in a sense legitimate judicial decisions are not. Under law, handicapped children enjoy a derivative but fundamental right to public schooling. The philosophical question centers on how educational rights are grounded or warranted. Some years ago, for example, Olafson (1973) argued that the right to an education was a "special" rather than human right. Melden (1973, 1977), in opposition, attempted to show that the concept of right derives from the fact of personhood, from being a human being, and from being a moral agent within a community. Other theorists justify moral and social rights, including the right to education, on altogether different grounds (Nozick, 1974; Turner, 1978). Rights, privileges, and immunities (not always interchangeable concepts) may be grounded, for example, in a theory of "natural law" or "social contract," in a theology, in an ontology of "personhood," or, perhaps, derived from some kind of utilitarian calculus (Phillips, 1979). There are, after all, many ways of attacking or defending anyone's "right" to an education, and depending upon the philosophical construction that is placed upon the concept, rather different logical consequences follow in terms of application and interpretation. For example, is access to schooling an absolute or a conditional right? Are there circumstances in which one's right to an education may be superseded by others' exercise of their rights? Could there be mitigating conditions whereby one's educational rights are suspended or revoked? Does the concept of an educational right imply or contain within itself any particular idea of the form or type of education to which one is entitled, or the arrangements under which it is obtained?

Equal Opportunity

Closely related to educational rights are issues of equity, equality of opportunity, and equality of education. These questions in turn hinge on theories of justice, in the sense, one might argue, that inequality is "unjust" or that "justice" requires special sorts of "inequalities." Most theories of justice have as a central concern the allotment of something, like education, to people. Frequently, justice means "to each his due" or as Frankena (1962) defined it, "Justice is treating people equally except as an unequal treatment is required by just-making considerations (i.e., by principles of justice, not merely moral principles) of substantial weight in the circumstances" (p. 10). Thus for Frankena, it would be just to educate handicapped children "unequally" in the sense of assuring disabled or disadvantaged learners disproportionate shares of resources and attention. Under a "proportional equality" theory, the emphasis is on some condition (i.e., the fact of being handicapped) that warrants differential treatment.

Alternatively, justice can be said to rest on the relevance of needs, that is, "to each according to his or her needs." Thus, if education is a fundamental "need" in some sense, and society is responsible for meeting that need for all its members, then when some individuals have greater needs than others a disproportionate distribution of educational services is warranted as "just." Still another theory of justice is predicated on the proposition: to each according to his or her entitlements or rights. Once again, however, the standing or nature of the right in question affects the argument. Rawls (1971), for instance, suggested that the sole criterion for unequal treatment is whether policy works in favor of those otherwise least advantaged (i.e., "compensatory" or "distributive" justice requires special attention to the educational entitlements of handicapped learners). Rawls' position has been faulted on several grounds (Tice, 1980; Warnock, 1977). Some people might argue that applying Rawls' theory to public policy would require that the nature of the educational disadvantage handicapped children suffer be defined relative to the educational advantage enjoyed by nonhandicapped children.

Some "real-life" equity issues are extraordinarily perplexing, however. In a sense, under the stipulations of Public Law 94-142 a double standard appears to operate: Regular education is considered adequate if it satisfies certain minimal standards whereas programs for handicapped children by law must be tailored to meet each child's special, unique needs. Can this discrepancy be justified, and if so, on what grounds? Again, if nonhandicapped children are placed at a disadvantage as a result of the diversion of attention and resources to handicapped children in the same classroom, could this situation be construed as discriminatory and somehow unjust? Finally, if gifted children are denied enrichment programs, extended summer instruction, private placement, or other services which are designated for handicapped children, many critics fear a backlash and an onslaught of new lawsuits alleging denial of equal protection of the law. Are academically exceptional learners entitled--morally as well as legally--to the same intervention as handicapped children?

The point needs to be emphasized. These are not purely rhetorical questions. No answers can be assumed to be self-evident. Conceivably, an affirmative response for each could be defended successfully on one basis or another. Nor need the arguments be narrowly legalistic; that is, the activity of generating normative issues is a distinctively philosophical undertaking and, in the final analysis, the issues require some satisfactory philosophic resolution.

Careful scrutiny of certain interpretations accorded the language of Public Law 94-142 may suggest possible confusion between the assertion that everyone has an equal right to education (i.e., access, opportunity for

enrollment) and the claim that everyone has a right to equal education (i.e., egalitarianism). The two are quite dissimilar propositions (Phillips, 1979). It is one thing to define the proposition that every child should have an equal chance to enroll in a public school. It is quite another, involving a much more extensive claim, to allege that every learner possesses a right to the same or "commensurate" education. In the first case, the only major consideration is whether each child has a right, that is, entitled, to receive a publicly supported education. But the question of what kind of education is required could be left open. Alternatively, the argument might specify that the sort of schooling received be equal with respect to some other criteria or set of variables, e.g., opportunity to benefit from the education at some point in time. In the latter case, however, the presumption could be that the education received by one child is alike, or identical with, the sort of education extended to each and every other learner. Clearly, without delving into matters further, it is obvious that the philosophic issues underlying claims of equity, rights, and justice prompted by the 1975 Act need to be sorted out with exquisite care.

Mainstreaming As Metaphor

Educational discourse abounds with metaphors, and obviously the term "mainstreaming" is metaphorical. Taken at face value, it rather clearly suggests a policy of "returning" handicapped students to the "main stream" of regular education. As a metaphor, it thus appears to encourage precisely what proponents of the practice are most concerned to oppose, namely, the wholesale elimination of special self-contained classrooms and the placement of handicapped learners in regular classrooms (Turnbull & Schulz, 1979, p. 52). Of course this is not at all what thoughtful advocates recommend. Nonetheless, the concept of "least restrictive" enviroment often has been assumed to requite the practice of integrating handicapped students into regular schools (Forness, 1979; Graham, Hudson, Burdg & Carpenter, 1980; Turnbull, Strickland & Hammer, 1978; Wendall, 1977). Meyen and Lehr (1980) noted that in the absence of an operational definition of the "least restrictive" environment principle, the tendency is to equate, or to consider as synonymous, regular class placement and least restrictive learning environment. Sabatino (1981) wondered if the inadvertent net effect, therefore, of emphasizing mainstreaming will not be the closing down of more placement and educational alternatives than special educators can afford to lose.

One hardly can expect the language of a piece of legislation to exhibit a high degree of conceptual clarity and precision. But when the use of the term "mainstreaming" is employed carelessly in conjunction with a similarly ill-defined concept--"least restrictive" environment--the results are likely

to generate confusion and misunderstanding. For example, from a philosophic perspective, the apparent ambiguity surrounding the intent or purpose of mainstreaming is most troublesome. What are children mainstreamed into, and for what reasons? Research, it needs to be said, does not seem to bear out the contention of some enthusiasts that the regular classroom represents for many handicapped children the least restrictive learning alternative (Cruickshank, 1977; Zigler & Muenchow, 1979). On the contrary, for many such children, the regular classroom may, in fact, be the most restrictive, given their unique educational problems.

Although a number of researchers have investigated the effects of mainstream programs for learning disabled pupils, drawing clear conclusions and implications for practice is difficult. Among younger children, especially, the results of at least one major three-year study suggest that they are more likely to achieve academically in special classrooms than in regular classes (Scholom, Schiff, Swerdlik, & Knight, 1981). Ironically, the eligibility criteria commonly developed by state educational agencies for mildly handicapped learners focus on their inability to profit from regular nonspecialized programs. But if the conditions for a typical classroom are not currently conducive to the provision of intensive instruction, the warrant for encouraging handicapped children's placement in such classrooms remains questionable (Meyen & Lehr, 1980). If learning disabled children require smaller classes, resource-rooms, supportive services, adaptive teaching techniques--in short, a more responsive educational setting--and under present conditions regular classrooms cannot supply them, it is difficult to argue that regular classrooms offer these children the least restrictive environment to which, presumably, they are entitled.

Sometimes, proponents argue, the overarching aim of regular classroom placement for as many handicapped children as possible is not so much to facilitate academic achievement as it is to secure their social acceptance by nonhandicapped peers. Once again, however, little data suggest that under present circumstances special students are well accepted in regular classrooms (Gallent, 1981; Oltman, 1981; Prillaman, 1981). In some cases, on the contrary, closer contact with handicapped children is associated with greater rejection (Gottlieb & Davis, 1973; Rucker, Howe & Snider, 1965). In the regular classroom, as it turns out, the potential often is far greater for harmful social and emotional experiences which can be damaging to a handicapped child's self-concept and sense of self-esteem. Exposure of handicapped to nonhandicapped learners alone is insufficient for the development of positive attitudes toward integration.

Now, of course, the fact of social rejection is an insufficient reason not to try to effect attitudinal changes among regular classroom teachers and students. More and better efforts are needed, and when they succeed all

will benefit, handicapped and nonhandicapped alike. Ideally, the desirable goal would be for all students to learn in the same setting, with everyone in process of learning to respect, tolerate, and appreciate individual differences. But to advance this claim, it is worth observing, is to stake out a position, a moral stance, which holds that "psychosocial integration" is a more important objective under certain circumstances than are the traditional objectives of academic achievement. That is, if it proves to be the case that the actual point of mainstreaming is to facilitate understanding and social adjustment rather than to advance learning, this position is negotiable but it should be recognized and acknowledged for what it is.

Policy Considerations

It will be interesting to see if the stimulus of a legislative and judicial mandate for public policy can produce the consequences intended at the grass roots level. Public Law 94-142 illustrates a trickle down theory whereby policy initiatives are generated at the top but compliance depends upon "street-level" bureaucrats in local educational agencies, including individual administrators and teachers. Thus, although the law requires expanded educational opportunities for thousands of handicapped individuals, it has produced what Creekmore and Creekmore (1981) termed "nearly unbearable" regulations for some local school systems. Attempts to comply minimally with the law, as nearly all observers will concede, in many cases have resulted in less than appropriate education for many handicapped students.

Proponents of the law argue persuasively that regular classroom teachers should strive to offer an optimal learning for all children, handicapped and nonhandicapped alike. And, of course, they should, assuming that everyone is in agreement about what constitutes an ideal learning environment. Furthermore, so it is said, no federal law, no matter how carefully drafted or detailed in its regulations, can guarantee that everyone responsible for making it work will always act wisely in individual cases, or that each child's school placement, in fact, will represent the optimal arrangement for that child. The practical, not philosophic, question is whether it is reasonable to expect the regular school to do more, often at greater cost, without a corresponding increase in new resources. If regular education teachers are already overburdened, if they are inadequately prepared to respond to even greater learner heterogeneity, if incentives are lacking for inservice training to correct or remediate deficiencies, and if, in other ways, the requisite conditions for successfully implementing the law do not exist, hard questions follow. The philosophical question which policy analysts may want to address focuses on the formal requirements for the policy and the circumstances that must obtain in order for its objectives to be realized.

One may argue, for example, that only a legal requirement is sufficient to galvanize the educational system into action, that the formulation of public policy cannot await the availability of needed resources. Rather, reform policy serves to generate the resources that are needed for its translation into practice. Whether this generation will occur for Public Law 94-142 remains to be seen. The opposing view, of course, is that considering the resource constraints of the present educational system, institutional inertia, and other factors, the policies mandated by this law are foredoomed to failure or will be fatally compromised in the long run.

IEPs

One of the most difficult tasks in analyzing public policy from a philosophic point of view is making clear its full intent. For example, both Public Law 94-142 and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Public Law 93-112) contain provisions for individualized needs assessment, remediation, and instruction. Section 504 simply requires a program "designed to meet individual educational needs" whereas The 1975 Education for All Handicapped Children Act specifies and individualized educational plan (IEP). The latter must contain a statement of a handicapped child's present levels of educational performance; a statement of annual goals, including short-term instructional objectives; a statement of specific services to be provided; an assessment of the extent to which the child will be able to participate in regular educational programs; the projected dates for the initiation and anticipated duration of services; and criteria and evaluation procedures for assessing instructional objectives.

Reactions to the IEP provisions have been mixed. They range from heartfelt endorsement (Ziegler, 1980) to qualified acceptance (Sabatino, 1981) to outright skepticism or opposition (Smith, 1980). IEPs are being written--sometimes following forms produced commercially on a mass basis--but they are not always followed. The intent of Congress in requiring at least annual monitoring of IEPs is plain enough, but the larger implication or practical purport of the law is less so. Is it possible to devise IEPs that reflect the whole range of growth and development with which teachers should be concerned? Should IEPs be written only for handicapped children? If individualized diagnosis and instruction are critical for some students, are they less so for others? Is there a "hidden agenda" in Public Law 94-142 that would promote the individualization of all public education for all students? Is there an adequate research base to make individualization the basis for all instruction? Is it the case, as Leiberman (1981) and others have alleged, that special education has assumed the task of reforming regular education and recreating it in its own image? If so, is this reform desirable? To

date, these questions have received insufficient attention; they afford rich source material for further philosophic investigation.

Ideological Context

One of the most provocative attempts to analyze the philosophic significance of Public Law 94-142 appears in Shapiro (1980); the paper purports to exhibit the tensions or "contradictions" arising from liberal-democratic ideology as a determinant of school reform and the importunate systemic requirements of a corporate-capitalist economy. Thus, the mandate of The Education for All Handicapped Children Act embodies values, beliefs, and judgments which are reflected in a dominant liberal-democratic ideology. Yet the school as a social institution, Shapiro argued, must accommodate to the prevailing socio-economic and political structure of bourgeois corporate capitalism. Mainstreaming, for example, is an attempt to provide the minimum conditions necessary for the development of shared experiences and understanding among students. Its aim is to provide equality of access and to facilitate the shared values that are essential for social continuity and stability. But the school's role is to reproduce social inequality and to supply the needs of a corporate economy. It sorts and selects individuals and provides them with the expectations, attitudes, and skills which are appropriate to their future roles in a differentiated socio-economic order. Socio-economic stratification, in other words, necessitates differential socialization in school. Hence, mainstreaming may be designed to ensure greater equality of access to schooling, but the school continues to function within the constraints imposed by the hierarchical social structure, dispensing education (and therefore social and economic) opportunities unequally. Its essential features are left untouched.

The entire notion of curricular diversification in special education, according to Shapiro's analysis, reflects a complex interplay of conflicting ideological and structural influences. The ideal of liberal-democratic pluralism endorses the idea that instead of offering a monolithic standardized curriculum, the school should endeavor to meet the individual needs of a diverse population through a comprehensive range of educational programs. What it ignores is the salient fact that society does not equally respect or reward varying capabilities, interests, aptitudes, or abilities. For example, in the case of vocational training programs for special needs students, the students are eventually consigned to low-status positions at the bottom end of the working-class occupational ladder as unskilled or surplus labor. Ultimately, this is precisely what the system requires. The ideology sanctioning curricular diversification merely obscures, as it were, how the system functions.

So-called "alternative" programs for "disruptive" students, "reluctant learners," and "behaviorally disordered" students also tend to emphasize the individual's "pathology" rather than the pathology of the school system or method of instruction.

> By seeing the alternative program as transitional--an opportunity to "shape-up"--the problem is seen as being located within the student. It emphasizes the aberant or deviant nature of the students....It is the individual's "problem," "disabilities," or "handicaps" that are emphasized, not the limitations or inadequacies of the instructional environment or educational process. (Shapiro, 1980, p. 218)

Failure in school is not viewed as the result of a social pathology, but the logical outcome of a defect residing "inside the skins" of those who are actually (or so Shapiro claims) victims of a pathological environment. Once again, by blaming the victims, the social system is kept intact.

What the rhetoric of school reform allegedly fails to take into account are the structural constraints imposed upon the institution of schooling by virtue of the way society itself is organized. Hence, reform rhetoric emphasizes creativity, individualization, freedom, and self-development. But the bureaucratic ethos necessitated by a stratified, hierarchical social order leads the school to emphasize docility, obedience, and passivity. Schools, consistent with societal strictures and imperatives, emphasize competition, penalize deviance, award conformity, and legitimate authoritarianism. This contradiction between ideology and social structure is highlighted by efforts at individualizing instruction, an essential element of Public Law 94-142. Inasmuch as keeping handicapped children in regular classrooms is a cardinal goal, it is believed that all teachers ought to have both the commitment and skills necessary to deal adequately with the special needs of each student. In particular, it is widely accepted that teachers should be able to devise individualized modes of instruction that are oriented to the diverse aptitudes, interests, abilities, and learning style of each child.

Shapiro, however, saw reflected in the IEP provision of the law the pervasive influence of a bureaucratic administrative and managerial ethos arising out of the very nature of the larger social order:

> The IEP reflects a behavioristic view of education. Its goals are highly circumscribed, minutely fragmented, and quantifiable. Such an approach generally excludes a concern with imaginative, creative, or divergent thinking. In addition, it is an authoritarian approach to the process of education. Education becomes a process in which the student attempts to come as close as possible to the outcomes already anticipated by a teacher. It replaces a process that is open-ended and exploratory, with one that awards conform-

> ity with "correct" answers. Overall, the approach is clearly congruent with bureaucratic values. Such values emphasize the fragmentation of tasks and roles, attempt to arrange actions into rationalized, measurable quantities, demand a narrow circumscribed set of concerns, and require an unquestioning adherence to authority. (p. 221)

Questions regarding the plausibility of this and other allegations that are part of Shapiro's thesis are best left open for further debate. The point here is neither to endorse nor refute them, only to illustrate briefly a particular philosophic approach to policy analysis that empahsizes how both social structure and ideology are said to help shape the nature and extent of educational reform. In this type of interpretation, ideology is viewed as a functional constraint (but not necessarily the product of some consciously formulated conspiracy), to maintain the basic contours of the polity--the distribution of resources, power, and cultural experience--and thereby to ensure the continuity of dominant social and political groups in the corporate economic order.

Whatever their validity, numerous studies of a similar character in the last few years have explored the ways in which school organization, pedagogy, and curricula support the reproduction of social inequalities, supply the needs of the corporate economy, and reflect ideologies contributing to the maintenance of social stability (Karabel & Halsey, 1977). Their chief utility, perhaps, lies in the attention they draw to the broader societal influences operating on the formulation and execution of school policy. Minimally, they underscore the need to avoid philosophical analysis in vacuo and to take into account the very real possibility that in educational matters appearances can sometimes be deceiving, that things are not always what they seem. In addition, the neo-Marxist or "sociology of knowledge" approach offers the challenge of a coherent and consistent framework within which many important issues in social philosophy related to education can be profitably pursued. The cogency of this sort of analysis awaits further empirical and philosophical investigation.

CONCLUSION

In this abbreviated account I attempted to illustrate the many ways in which philosophic inquiry might be directed to the challenges posed by Public Law 94-142. One dimension of the task is to help to clarify and define conceptual ambiguity surrounding such terms as "appropriate" education, "least restrictive" learning environment, and "mainstreaming." The object is not to supply stipulative definitions but to explore and render more explicit what it is people mean when they employ these terms in ordinary discourse or,

alternatively, what the terms could mean if they were used with greater care and precision. Another sort of activity could be called, for want of a better rubric, "contextual analysis," by means of which the issues and arguments surrounding the mandate of the legislation are placed in a more comprehensive setting. For example, it would be helpful to have a treatment or account of the law set against the larger struggle of other groups, discriminated against or excluded by society, in their demands for improved and more appropriate education. Again, it could prove useful to see Public Law 94-142 in the context of the overall impetus for school reform, in demands for greater flexibility, responsiveness, and openness to the needs of a heterogeneous school-aged population.

Philosophy likewise could be employed as a powerful tool for sorting out the fundamental issues underlying specific controversies, for example, in educational rights, equality of access, equality of opportunity, and equal education. Nor need the inquiry stop at analysis; it could be extended to the building-up of arguments on behalf of a certain viewpoint on equity in education, educational goals and objectives, school functions and purposes, and a host of related concerns. Finally, another desideratum would be some synoptic, integrative account of the moral, social, legal, and political implications or ramifications entailed. The extent to which these issues and questions furnish the content of courses in educational philosophy will depend [illegible] the predilections of instructors in the area. But it would be regrettable if philosophers of education missed the opportunity to contribute in their unique fashion to the on-going debate over one of the most significant developments to occur in recent years in modern American education.

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PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION: ALTERNATIVE PERSPECTIVES ON PUBLIC LAW 94-142 AND TEACHER EDUCATION

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Public Law 94-142 offers special challenges to academicians who are engaged in the pre-service and inservice education of educational practitioners. One reason is the new and different relations that are being forged among classroom teachers, special educators, other support service specialists, and school administrators, and between school personnel and parents. Another reason is the changes that are demanded of all such public school personnel in the practice of educating handicapped children.

The altered relations require changes in the training of educators to enable them to work within the new patterns. Regular and special teachers must learn new strategies so that they can work effectively with handicapped learners; and administrators must learn more about school law and the committee process skills that are essential to the identification of, prescription of special services for, and placement of handicapped youngsters in "least restrictive environments" to guarantee their "appropriate" education. Specialists will have to find a common language in order to cooperate with each other and the parents of handicapped students.

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OPPORTUNITIES FOR FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION

New opportunities that cut across all foundational fields are provided for foundations of education specialists to assist in what Lucas has termed "the development of interpretive, normative, and critical perspectives on the theory and practice of education."[1] A mere sampling of the opportunities follow:

1. Given the potential widespread force of Public Law 94-142, one would anticipate examinations by historians of education of earlier societal attitudes, educational (as well as medical, occupational, political, and housing) practices, and institutional arrangements for deaf, blind, mentally retarded, and emotionally troubled children and adults. Pioneer work by early researchers and theorists could be re-examined for whatever light they can shed on current practices, for example, the teaching of "daily living skills" to learners with cerebral palsy.

2. Scholars interested in the politics of education might want to examine the coalitions of special educators, parents of handicapped children, disabled adults, and politicians which applied the judicial and legislative pressure for what others have called the "quiet revolution" that resulted in the passage of, first, Section 504 and, then, Public Law 94-142. Inquiries into the politics of education might also look at how other civil rights movements (ethnic and minority groups and women) have impinged on education, and at the formation of "backlash" groups that protest some of the plans to carry out the provision of free public education as a matter of right to all of America's handicapped children.

3. Economists of education might continue to address cost/benefit analyses to diverse forms of mainstreaming.

4. Sociologists of education could shed light on changes in role expectations among special educators and regular classroom teachers who now "share" particular children.

5. Educational anthropologists might choose to look closely at some of the myths attached to handicapping conditions and the way these myths have been culturally communicated, for example, in folktales and children's literature (Equal Play, 1981).

6. Educational psychologists might examine more closely how perceived attitudes of nonhandicapped peers and siblings influence the self-image, academic performance, or willingness to "take risks" by learners with handicapping conditions.

Contributions of Philosophy of Education

Philosophers of education, too, have unique contributions to make to the training of educational practitioners, just as their specialized interests for inquiry can be fruitfully stimulated by focusing attention on some of the issues that Public Law 94-142 raises.

It is part of the unfortunate recent history of educational foundations that many practitioners, teacher educators, and foundations specialists themselves have seen the diminishing contribution to professional preparation being made by educational philosophers. Lucas attributes some of that decline to the educational philosophers' tendencies in the past few decades to withdraw to the "cold" of the ivory tower to engage in philosophical analysis of concepts. (He seems to imply that some of these concepts may be central to education, but the analyses per se seem sterile and remote to the on-going concerns of a teacher facing a classroom of 25 active, wiggling, intense, drugged out, bored, or curious learners on Monday morning.) Lucas notes that there is no clear-cut agreement on the most fruitful ways to teach philosophy of education courses, whether "isms," analysis of perennial educational issues, linguistic analysis, great ideas of the great thinkers, or attempts to justify either current practices or current criticisms of current practices. He might have pointed out (perhaps on the basis of his own inquiries into futurism and de-schooling; see Lucas, 1976) that broad, sweeping, sustained, and coherent views of changed roles for schools and education, whether that advanced by Theodore Brameld (who consistently argued for the centrality of education to the human culture-building enterprise) or Ivan Illich (who would close the schools to "de-school" society), have tended to win few adherents in the educational community or society at large.

The contributions of philosophers of education are modest, perhaps, but not unimportant. Indeed, even the analysis of concepts in education may be of service to not merely the members of the "academic guild" but, also to all educational practitioners (e.g., Lucas's focus on the dimensions of the language of Public Law 94-142). Unquestionably, schools can muddle through even if teachers do not give much clear thought to what schooling is all about; teachers can be mere technicians in the classroom. To the extent that one values reason in human affairs, however, there are grounds for believing that practitioners who give thought to "why" as well as "when" and "how" are better able to serve students and the society that has established the special institutions for the education of its children.

> We assume that it is a good thing for teachers to acquire a better understanding of what they are doing in the classroom, that philosophical attention is necessary for such an understanding and that it is indispensable for the improvement of teaching. The philosophical concern with the study of teaching is found in the Socratic

> impulse to know what one is about. "Know thyself" and "The unexamined life is not worth living" apply with special force to teachers. (Bandman & Guttchen, 1969, p. 2)

In acknowledging this modest contribution of philosophy to educational practice, Marler (1975) observed:

> Rather than our philosophical assumptions alone, it is the entire body of scientific knowledge, historical, psychological, sociological, and "reality" factors--as well as our philosophical assumptions in a given context of time, place, and people, which provides the reasons for action decisions. The development of more rational practices and more adequate policy guidelines depends on the construction of an educational theory rather than a comprehensive philosophical position alone. Nevertheless, it would be folly to minimize the contributions that philosophy may make to such a theory. Philosophy has immense potential value based on its experience in dealing with syntheses of scientific fact and the most deep-seated beliefs of man about himself and his world, in analyzing thinking processes and products, and in working through open inquiry. As a matter of fact, given the continuing limitations of scientific method and technology in producing and synthesizing empirically-verified fact, the contributions of philosophy appear to be quite necessary (though surely not sufficient) to the task. (p. 21)

Marler's point of view is extended a bit further by Wirsing (1972). She described some reasons for stepping aside from her teaching responsibilities for a while to write Teaching and Philosophy: A Synthesis:

> A teacher's methodology reflects his basic assumptions. Consciously or unconsciously, every teacher makes myriad decisions each day in terms of his particular stock of underlying beliefs. The way in which he ascertains his objectives and then selects, structures, and teaches his content depends upon the theoretical framework in which he operates--what he believes about the good life, how people learn, and what they need to learn. In view of the responsibilities of the teaching role, these decisions which the teacher makes can have a far-reaching impact on the lives of all concerned. When the teacher approaches such decisions blindly, the relationship between methods and philosophy can and often does reflect a discontinuity of thought. Hence when such a teacher is pushed to the wall for a justification of his teaching behavior, he finds himself in the disturbing situation of operating without a rationale that makes sense to anyone, including himself. Therefore, a conscious linkage between philosophical belief and teaching

practice needs to be sought from the outset of one's professional preparation. (pp. 3-4)

PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION: OPPORTUNITIES TO SHED LIGHT ON ISSUES ARISING FROM PUBLIC LAW 94-142

What particular opportunities, then, does attention to the principles, regulations, language, and potential applications of Public Law 94-142 offer to the philosophers of education? What contributions could we make to the preparation of educational practitioners who will be responsible for carrying out the letter and, more importantly, the spirit of the law?

Concern with Justice

Many persons have argued, as certainly do some contributors to this report, that the provision of free and appropriate public education to all handicapped children in America in the least restrictive educational environment is essentially a moral issue of justice.

Many writers who urge the necessity of changing teacher-education programs (to enable graduates to function effectively in schools that are struggling to implement Public Law 94-142), also call attention to the "moral" issue:

> At its root, mainstreaming is a moral issue. It raises age-old questions: How do we want to live with each other? On what basis should we choose to give priority to one value over another? How far does the majority want to go in accommodating to the needs of the minority? The emergence of mainstreaming as an issue raises but does not directly confront these questions. To the extent that we put discussion of mainstreaming in the context of education and schools, we are likely to find ourselves mired in controversies centering on laws, procedures, administration, and funding. These are legitimate controversies because they deal with practical, day-to-day matters that affect the lives of everyone. But the level of difficulty we encounter in dealing with these matters ultimately will be determined by the clarity with which the moral issue is formulated. This clarity will not "solve" the practical problems but, at the very least, it will make us more aware of two things: (a) so-called practical matters or problems always reflect moral issues, and (b) differences in moral stance have very practical consequences. (Sarason & Doris, 1978, pp. 38-39)

Philosophers--and philosophers of education--can contribute to the understanding of principles of justice. It seems crucially important in the context of a pluralistic democratic society that appeals to "justice" be grounded on certain fundamental moral or ethical principles which are not sectarian and do not depend on divine warrant. Rawls (1971) offered an interesting albeit controversial analysis (an examination of recent proceedings of the Philosophy of Education Society makes it clear that Rawlsian analyses are a fruitful source for discussion of many issues in connection with justice). Certainly, Peters (1963), the British philosopher of education, has provided a provocative analysis of the search for justice in his book, Ethics and Education. According to Peters, concern for justice must be tied to respect for persons and to respect for the impartiality of reason. His discussion of "equality"--the concept undergirding much of the discussion of the sort of provisions that should be made, according to their proponents, for handicapped learners--draws heavily on an application of the principle of justice. Conceptions of justice which call upon "utility" also warrant attention. Some years ago, Edel (1951) raised concerns with the extent to which an economy of abundance[2] provides some of the material bases for concerns with justice. It is not without significance that America's initial provision of public education for handicapped children and youth occurred when the nation had attained high levels of economic well-being. (Do not think for a moment that everyone was well off, economically, or that we do not have disparities of wealth and access to resources which have nothing to do with abilities but are a consequence of inherited, racial, or sexual privilege; the material resources exist--as does the technology and tentative information with respect to strategies--to do much more than merely "feed and water" the nation's handicapped population.)

Equality and Education

In addition to concern with justice, issues related to educational equality also must be considered in the philosophical training of professional educators. These issues, of course, arise whether one is attempting to respond to sexism, racism, or handicappism. Again, Peters is a good place to begin in teacher-education programs.

Furthermore, Frankel's (1964) observations on egalitarianism in a democratic society merit some thought. Arguments for and against Public Law 94-142 should be carefully scrutinized. It may make very good sense to include some previously excluded physically handicapped students in high school geometry classes, but it may make equally good sense to exclude some nondisabled as well as physically disabled students from the classes on grounds other than disability. According to Frankel,

> And when we say that men are equal or unequal in one respect, we do not necessarily say that they are equal or unequal in any other respect. An equal right to apply for a job does not imply equal ability to perform the job; an equal chance for an education does not imply equal ability to profit from the education, nor does it imply--though some partisans of equality of educational opportunity seem to forget it--that all children should have the same education.
>
> The argument between egalitarians and their opponents, therefore, is generally an argument with a suppressed premise. The argument is not about whether men are really equal or not. It is about the standards that are employed and the particular characteristics of individuals that are singled out as the basis for calling them equal or unequal. Sensibly construed, egalitarianism is not an effort to eliminate the distinctions between people. In fact, it manufactures new distinctions in the very process of destroying old ones. If we remove racial or religious distinctions in selecting applicants for professional positions, for example, we have to substitute other standards such as the ability to do well on written examinations. This may be a good criterion or a bad one, but it divides people into different classes. In practice, egalitarianism is simply an effort, in other words, to eliminate distinctions that seem arbitrary, unreasonable or purposeless. And in each case the specific distinctions under attack by the egalitarian, and the new distinctions with which he would replace them, have to be examined. (p. 133)

Okun (1981) extended Frankel's ideas further with the argument that actual differences among people should be acknowledged. She implied not only that there need not be equality of educational experiences for students, whether handicapped or not, but that it is also fallacious to expect equality of contributions to society as a consequence of schooling.

> There is a great need to distinguish between real and perceived differences, and to provide educational services to each person according to his or her actual strengths and limitations. Particularly for the more severely disabled individual, distinguishing these differences demands the creation of a different concept of schooling, one that allows the individual to achieve, educationally, according to his or her potential. Such a concept must be enacted regardless of individual potential to contribute, in the traditional sense, to the larger society because, in fact, individuals vary in potential contribution. The educational system must be acknowledged as the mechanism by which each individual's potential is developed. This is something that the common school concept

has failed to recognize. Until individual differences, and individual potentials, are acknowledged, then mainstreaming cannot be called a success. (p. 28)

OTHER ISSUES WARRANTING PHILOSOPHICAL CONSIDERATION

Peters (1963) argued persuasively that three conditions must be obtained in connection with education; they are as follows:

(1) that "education" implies the transmission of what is worthwhile to those who become committed to it;

(2) that "education" must involve knowledge and understanding and some kind of cognitive perspective which are not inert;

(3) that "education" at least rules out some procedures of transmission, on the grounds that they lack wittingness and voluntariness on the part of the learner. (p. 20)

Each issue might well be re-examined in our efforts to prepare school practitioners who will work successfully with all learners, including those with handicapping conditions. For example, would it be "worthwhile" to include knowledge on genetic counseling; causes, detection, and treatment of visual and hearing impairments; forms of epilepsy; and many other kinds of information on disabling conditions in health education and/or sex education classes in our schools? In elementary or secondary school career education classes or programs, would it be "worthwhile" to pay attention to the achievements of disabled workers, to the specialized training programs and vocational counseling services that are available, and to the societal, educational, occupational, and legal barriers which disabled workers seek to overcome?

Taking a different tack, it may well be worth considering the extent to which certain behavior modification practices, which are effective in helping disruptive children to control their anger, are congruent with Peters's educational requirement that learners wittingly and voluntarily submit to what they are learning. Peters's emphasis upon initiation into worthwhile activities and the transmission of knowledge that is used by learners to illuminate and direct their lives is not novel; many educational philosophers before and since have argued to the centrality of knowledge to the educational enterprise.

Examinations of knowledge gaining and teaching to promote the acquisition and use of knowledge might explore ways in which strategies that work effectively with handicapped learners could prove to be beneficial to other students as well.[3] For example, teachers who are equipped to employ auditory and tactile learning strategies with visually impaired learners might discover that these strategies enrich the ways in which pupils with unimpaired vision acquire information. Or, perhaps, encouraging a dyslexic youngster to prepare

a filmstrip and cassette tape as a way of summarizing a unit on "Women's Studies," rather than writing a report, should be an instructional option for many other students. Teachers must consider what it means for students to use knowledge.

Educators also have been concerned with the cultivation of learners' skills, values, and attitudes. Here again the philosophical issue of respect for persons might be reconsidered. For example, what does it mean to say one "respects" the person who happens to be mentally retarded or troubled with severe emotional difficulties? Teachers need to explore this issue in the light of how they respond to such students and how they can build normative commitment to this value of "respect" in all their students. (Teachers in a pluralistic, democratic society cannot fail to uphold this value today if they are to discharge what Smith, Stanley, & Shores, 1957, have called their "moral authority" to transmit the "intellectual and moral commitments" of the society. A society is not static and fixed and its moral traditions evolve. What those moral traditions are, of course, should be explored in the professional preparation of teachers!)

Teachers not only will interact with learners on issues of knowledge and respect for persons but, also, they will need to give thought to issues of caring, trust, compassion, fear, anger, dignity, rejection, love, and grief. They will want to help students to learn to exercise freedoms as well as to undertake duties and obligations as participants in our society. And such participation may well include a commitment to changing laws, economic patterns, and social interactions in the interest of providing equity for handicapped persons. They will have to understand that the handicapped learners in their classrooms are not "somebody else's kids" (Hayden, 1981). (In fact, teachers may well need to give thought to the tendency to ignore or overlook the "problems" of some learners, particularly females, whose behavior does not immediately attract attention. Selma Greenberg's discussion of "Education Equity in Early Educational Environments" could be a spring-board here.)

Teachers need to consider their language--and that of their students and the culture at large--in referring to people who are disabled and to disabling conditions. For example, terminology such as "blind as a bat," "deaf and dumb" (with "dumb" implying either mute, or ignorant, or both), "retardate," or "crippled" might be explored philosophically as well as within the sociocultural context.

Teachers also will need to give some thought to issues of "standards," whether one is talking about what will count as a reasoned argument in a science or history class or in the critical appraisal of works of art created by students and other artists who are disabled.[4]

In Reynolds's Foreword to the recently published examination of current knowledge on mainstreaming (Bates, 1981), he noted that three principles

undergird the provision of educational services for youngsters with handicapping conditions.

> The changes now occurring in school programs for exceptional students are based essentially on three principles: (a) that all children, regardless of condition, have a right to free and appropriate education; (b) that all children, regardless of condition, are capable of learning, and (c) that all children should receive their education while they attend regular schools and remain with their own families, to the maximum extent feasible.... The first and second principles, and their relationships, were summarized by Thomas Gilhool, the attorney for the plaintiff in the landmark PARC case, as follows:
>
> > The factual argument for right to education was equally straight-forward. It rested on the now clear proposition that without exception, every child, every exceptional child, every retarded child, is capable of benefiting from an education. There is no such thing as an uneducable and untrainable child. To put it another way, for example, for every 30 retarded children with a proper program of education and training, 29 of them are capable of achieving self-sufficiency, 25 of them in the ordinary way in the market place and 4 of them in a sheltered environment. The remaining 1 of every 30 retarded children is capable, with a proper program of education and training, of achieving a significant degree of self-care....
>
> The third principle...[is] known as the "least restrictive environment" or mainstreaming principle....
>
> These three principles have become the basis of a new public policy of education that exists independent of any specific federal or state legislation. Even if the federal funding for Public Law 94-142, The Education for All Children Act of 1975, were to be curtailed or eliminated tomorrow, local school districts still would be obligated to seek out all handicapped children, and to provide them with appropriate education and related services in the least restrictive environment. This least restrictive alternative, the practice that is known popularly as mainstreaming, has been tested in the nation's lower courts and affirmed again and again. (p. iii)

It is important to note, however, that even if Reynolds were correct in his statement that mainstreaming is supported by public policy, the philosophical issues and questions of social policy and societal values still would need

exploration. Such an exploration is properly one of the tasks of foundations of education courses in the preparation of teachers and other educators.

Corrigan and Howey (1980), attempting to sound a clarion call, expressed the need for a sense of social purpose[5] that could serve as a pivotal point of discussion in a philosophy of education course for pre-service teachers. They claimed,

> In 1980, education has reached the end of an era. Society now demands a new breed of teacher for a new breed of school--a well-prepared, highly motivated professional, capable of understanding a broad range of learning problems and of designing and implementing curricular and instructional strategies to solve them. If the school of the future is to become a vehicle for social progress then a sense of social purpose must pervade every level of the educational system and the teaching profession. (p. 211)

It remains to be seen whether educational philosophers will help to prepare inservice and pre-service teachers to examine this idea in philosophical ways that go beyond the sloganeering, band-wagon mentality and faddism which Lucas decries; and yet teachers must not be stranded on the lonely shores of philosophical analysis exclusively.

The tasks confronting teachers and other practitioners concerned with the education of the nation's children are difficult. The poster is correct: "No One Ever Said Teaching Was Going to Be Easy!" Philosophers of education do not make the task any easier for the people who plan to work in our schools. But we <u>can</u> help those who are about to launch themselves on the journey to understand some of the landmarks they will need to use as they steer their course.

TEXT NOTES

1. Raywid (1972) raised the importance of interpretive, and not merely applicative, knowledge in the professional education of teachers and other school personnel.

2. Even in an economist's discussion of mainstreaming and its costs, there is recognition that the social policy of educating handicapped youngsters in ways that call for a greater allocation of public resources than that allocated to their nonhandicapped peers is tied to conceptions of justice. The unequal distribtion of resources may be construed as some form of moral retribution even if it cannot be justified, economically, as likely to reduce future economic costs of maintenance. "Rawls (1971) has referred to this claim as redress for 'undeserved' inequalities:... 'in order to treat all persons equally to provide genuine equality of opportunity, society must give more attention to those born into the less favorable social positions. The idea is to redress the bias of contingencies in the direction of equality' (pp. 100-101)" (Levin, 1978, p. 158 fn.).

3. It can be argued that such a more generous view of modifying instructional strategies would serve to strengthen teachers' competency and commitment,

rather than adding fuel to the sometimes expressed view that regular teachers are being "put upon" when they are required to work with handicapped learners.

4. Indeed, art educators will need to spend time sorting out issues having to do with art as a form of therapy or as a diagnostic tool from conceptions of art as problem-solving behavior, or occasions for skills acquisition and mastery, or instances of self-expression.

5. It is clearly the case that the expansion of interaction between nonhandicapped and handicapped persons--envisioned as one of the goals of mainstreaming practices in schools--moves in the direction of creating a new social order (with teachers assisting in its creation).

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PHILOSOPHERS OF EDUCATION AS MIDDLEMEN

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Rather than rehearsing Lucas's arguments about the alleged dreary state of philosophy of education, I want to take up three issues which are implicit in his paper: (a) The relation of theory to practice in education, (b) the character of the enterprise that is philosophy of education, and (c) what I take to be the major issue underlying his thinking--the place of philosophy of education in the training of teachers.

In order to address these issues adequately, however, I first must tackle an issue that Lucas seems not to address directly, namely, the point of prospective teachers' studying philosophy of education. To be sure, Lucas gives quite enough argument to elicit the response of "not much" to this issue. I am referring to his discussion of the twentieth century's logico-linguistic analytic trend in philosophy, in general, his quotation of Soltis's (1981) description of the resultant "mismatch" between public and professional expectations of philosophy of education and the apparent reticence of philosophers of education to engage in problems that have some relevance to the practice of education, which seem to call for the response. Yet I believe that by relying on this kind of negativity Lucas may tell us only what his prescriptions for the ills of philosophy of education are designed to avoid, not what they reasonably might be expected to effect. In offering us his investigation of Public Law 94-142 as an extended example of how philosophy might illumine an educationally relevant problem, Lucas has provided an example of philosophy

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of education at work. But without knowing the point of his exercise for teachers, we are hardly in a position to judge its worth for them.

My critique begins, therefore, by repairing this gap and then addresses the issues in the context of my thinking about the point of philosophy of education in the training of teachers. It will turn out, I believe, that some of what Lucas says about the potential contribution of philosophy of education to teachers' preparation is incomplete whereas much of what he says can be affirmed convincingly.

THE POINT OF PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

For many teachers the memories of their philosophy of education class or, more likely, according to Lucas, their "educational theory class," are painful. They do not need a Dewey (1964) to remind them of their "unconscious duplicity" (p. 320) during their days as practice-teachers, namely, their lip service to the lofty principles of pedagogy learned at college and their dependence on experientially gained know-how in the classroom. Rather than attempt to adjust their methods of teaching to the educational principles so carefully enunciated by their philosophy of education professors, many students simply pick up what they perceive to succeed in their interactions with their charges. Thus, there results "the formation of habits of work which have an empirical, rather than a scientific, sanction" (Dewey, 1964, p. 319). Such a realization, however, is most helpful in understanding the contribution of philosophy of education to teachers' preparation. If teachers are to get beyond the mere acquisition of the "immediate proficiency," which condemns them to "intellectual subserviency" (Dewey, 1964, pp. 320-321), then surely they must acquire the habits of critical thinking which best address the conduct of education. And with what else is philosophy of education concerned but the practice of such critical thinking? Given its emphasis on conceptual analysis, its concern with purpose and its interest in "discerning...underlying issues" (p. 18) in educational questions, contemporary philosophy of education can contribute to developing the ability to think in a critico-creative manner about education. Provided that the subject is so taught that students come to care about its content, then philosophy of education may aid in the development of habitual critical thought.

But let us take note of what is embedded here. In attempting to help teachers to develop a critical attitude toward the process of education so that they can understand the reasons for what they are doing, philosophy of education is also contributing to the personal and intellectual development of the teachers. Given this view of philosophy of education, teachers can develop a clear rationale for their decisions about both the matter and manner of education <u>for themselves</u>. In essence, by insisting that students

learn to think for themselves, philosophy of education contributes to their liberal education. Thus, students are rescued from the stultifying effects of mere training and permitted to glimpse the fundamental questions of education and to explore them rigorously. Never has such ability been more necessary! The teaching profession rarely has been under the attacks it faces today. If it is the case that current federal policies will destroy many traditional presuppositions about schools and, thereby, the roles of public school teachers (and I believe the policies will do just that), then student teachers must be helped to form attitudes toward their work which, I aver, is the task of philosophy of education, or student teachers may find themselves intellectually adrift and, thus, prey to political domination. Certainly a course in philosophy of education in the midst of a student's multitudinous pre-service commitments may not evoke a critical attitude toward education immediately but, if the course is presented properly it can stimulate the development of the kind of objective thinking about fundamental beliefs and ideals which will eventuate in the autonomous and critically experimental attitude that characterizes the best teachers.

THE RELATION OF THEORY AND PRACTICE IN EDUCATION

Skeptics, however, will be ill at ease with this line of argument. They will want to know, like the educators to whom Lucas alludes throughout his paper, what the relation is between this kind of philosophy and the practice of education: "Will it be more talk about talk?" as Lucas's educators might dismiss ordinary language philosophy of education. "Will it not further teachers' indifference to the practicalities of their profession?" as Lucas's educators might think this kind of philosophy to encourage. Ultimately, they might ask, "Will it not turn out to be irrelevant to the daily tasks of schooling children?" as Lucas's educators, following Broudy (1981), might insist when they consider clarifying the nature of this kind of philosophy (p. 17). How can these skeptical questions on the relation between theory and practice in education be answered?

An easy response to the claim that philosophy of education is remote from education practice, so remote, in fact, that it is irrelevant, is to point out that in disputes over educational practice, the most "practical" thing a teacher can do is to sit down and think hard or, better, to argue with people about what is meant by the terms that crop up in the disputes (Wilson, 1977). Such a response is easy because it avoids the difficulty of enunciating the precise relation between theory and practice in education, a task which, so far from being practical, is highly theoretical and requires some philosophical acumen.

Following Siegel (1981), whose thinking is deplored by Lucas's educators, it is important to distinguish between theory and practice because, clearly,

"they are...activities with different aims" (p. 131); the point of theory is understanding, typically gained by explanation, whereas the point of practice is to affect a presently existing state of affairs in some way, typically, by maintaining or altering it. As a result, Siegel (1981) argues for the autonomy of each activity so that he arrives at the conclusions which Lucas correctly ascribes to him, namely, the idea that the implications of theory for the classroom may be virtually nonexistent so that practical effects of theory may be mere by-products of the quest for theoretical understanding. But such an emphasis on the autonomy of the two activities may lead to our ignoring the possibility of reciprocity between them. Siegel is too quick to dismiss the importance of what he refers to as the "inter-relevance between theory and practice" (p. 132); hence he fails to see the significance of their interrelatedness, a significance that is crucial to answering the skeptics' charges that philosophy of education is so much talk and may encourage indifference to the practice of education. By insisting that although good educational practice must be informed by the conclusions of educational theory, adequate educational theory must be instructed by good educational practice, in effect we are arguing for the different but equal status of theory and practice in philosophy of education. Hence students must excel at both if they are to pursue the subject correctly.

Nor will this view violate the "intellectual integrity" (p. 130) of philosophy of education about which Siegel worries so much. Rather, far from siding with the "go-practical" group of philosophers of education, this view retains the subject's independence as an intellectual discipline. It provides the set of philosophical issues that are appropriate to the pursuit of philosophy of education and does not denigrate the practice of education in the process. Indeed, I suspect that Lucas's extended discussion of how philosophy of education may illumine the educational issue of equity is an excellent demonstration of this kind of philosophy of education at work. He suggests that, once properly understood, the metaphor of mainstreaming may "encourage precisely what proponents of the practice are most concerned to oppose"; he unravels the language of Public Law 94-142 to demonstrate the "possible confusion between the assertion that everyone has an equal right to education...and the claim that everyone has a right to equal education"; and he summarizes that the "philosophical question which policy analysts may want to address focuses on the formal requirements for the policy and the circumstances that must obtain in order for its objections to be realized": all require the mutual benefit that theory and practice of education can afford each other.

Moreover, Lucas surely has gone beyond merely beginning with a "real-life problem" or addressing a vital concern "at some point." Rather, by pursuing his approach to the issue of equity, Lucas, I believe, has championed the

construction of philosophy of education that is outlined here in which theory and practice are integrated in the pursuit of philosophical understanding. Although he may have to raid philosophy of language, social philosophy, and meta-philosophy in order to address the issues of Public Law 94-142 which he raises, his conclusions on these issues would be rooted in educational practice and eventuate in prescriptions for educational process. As a result, he would assuage the skeptics and, in so doing, would more than adequately address the five rights which Broudy (1981) declared practical educators have against philosophers of education: the right to expect (a) that philosophers of education deal with problems of education in general and how they impinge on schooling; (b) that they clarify and elucidate concepts and arguments used in educational controversy; (c) that they carefully examine proposals and policies with respect to their consequences; (d) that they make some attempt to give an account of the educational enterprise as a whole which is indicative of a philosophy of life; and (e) that they strongly and steadily advocate rational discussion and freedom of inquiry. What we must now attempt is a characterization of the enterprise that is the task of philosophers of education.

THE CHARACTER OF PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

Lucas's view of the character of philosophy of education appears to be five-fold. (a) Philosophy of education helps teachers to understand what they mean or "could mean" when they employ educational terms. (b) Philosophy of education can set educational issues and the arguments pertaining to these issues in context, providing teachers with an intellectually comprehensive setting for their work. (c) Philosophy of education attempts to deal with the fundamental ideas found in such an exercise. (d) Philosophy of education may include building an argument for a specific viewpoint, thereby taking sides in the controversy. (e) Philosophy of education may provide an "integrative account" of its stance on the issue in question. Now I believe that what I have said is in broad agreement with Lucas's view. I want, however, to focus attention on the last two aspects of his characterization of philosophy of education. Although I believe myself to side with Lucas's notion that philosophers of education argue in support of a particular position on an educational issue, such as equality, and his suggestion that philosophers of education attempt integrative solutions to the problems they tackle, I suspect that because I think both views to be rather novel more needs to be said about each.

Typically, philosophers of education have not taken sides on the issues about which they have argued, at least not qua philosophers. Rather than prescribing a solution to the problem at hand they simply have set out the

issues involved, much in the way Lucas has done for equity. To take up a point of view is, for the philosopher, to overstep the boundaries of her or his purview as a philosopher of education. It is, to be blunt, to get one's hands dirty. I suspect, however, that in the very process of conceptual clarification, contextual argumentation, and dealing with fundamentals, philosophers of education are prescribing a particular point of view. The answers invited by the kinds of questions philosophers of education ask implicitly are a point of view on the issue at hand. Once arranged, these answers can make explicit and thereby justify a particular stance toward the issue. To those, like Siegel (1981), who would deny that philosophers of education qua philosophers have any place in the business of so arranging the answers, we might retort that having done that work they have, who else is better qualified to do so? I welcome Lucas's addition of a prescriptive component to his characterization of philosophy of education.

With regard to Lucas's plea that philosophy of education provide an integrative answer to the issues it tackles, I am once more in agreement. But, again, I believe that Lucas is suggesting something rather novel for philosophers of education, hence further argument may be required to substantiate his claim. To be sure, philosophers of education, like Peters (1977), have viewed questions of educational practice and policy as "hybrid."

To understand Peters's point, Lucas's extended example may be relied on once more. In dealing with questions of equity, as Lucas does, the principle of equality inevitably is appealed to at some point in the argument. Following Peters's suggestion, such a principle can be as much illuminated by sociological research on class or social mobility, or psychological thinking on the development of intelligence and language, as it can be by philosophical analysis. By integrating the sociological, psychological, and philosophical perspectives on equality, philosophers of education can replace the "undifferentiated mush" (p. 140), as Peters calls so much of our theorizing, with an interdisciplinary perspective on the philosophical issues of the question under discussion. Incidentally, an excellent example of just such an approach to philosophy of education is provided in Nyberg's (1981) recent book, Power Over Power. To understand the rather unattractive concept of power and to reinterpret our notion of the concept of freedom so that both can be taught as part of what he calls "a renovated ethics of education" (title page), Nyberg explicates both concepts in terms of their social, psychological, and instrumental aspects following his philosophical insight that both are relational concepts, and for each concept we must understand who has power or is free, to do what, with respect to whom. Thus, by eschewing the typical analytic approach of philosophy of education in favor of an interdisciplinary approach, Nyberg reveals the multifaceted nature of the concepts with which he was dealing and in the process, I suspect, broadens the range of audience interested in his prescriptions.

PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION AND THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

As the final discussion of this critique, I want to bring to the forefront the question that underlies both Lucas's and my remarks, namely, the place of philosophy of education in the preparation of teachers. I believe that much of what has been said to date can be construed to address this question; hence the idea of philosophy of education as liberally educating, the development of argument on fundamental concerns, integrative of theory and practice, and, ultimately, the potential prescriber of a particular point of view from an interdisciplinary perspective all may be seen as helpful in delineating a certain intellectual method and subject matter whose mastery cannot but enrich the preparation of people who are about to teach.

Viewed from this perspective, philosophy of education's place in teacher preparation is crucial to the development of prospective teachers' ability to think rationally for themselves. But I want to ask when teachers may be justifiably expected to acquire such an ability. As hinted at earlier, clearly it is a great deal to expect of practice-teachers in their initial training period. Perhaps philosophers of education should accept Peters's suggestion about educational theory in general as a prescription for philosophy of education in particular, especially in light of the intellectual caliber of some of today's prospective students. Peters (1977) wrote of educational theory that its main aim "should be to remove certain naivities that students bring to the educational situation, through having only participated in it at the consumer end" (p. 164) of the process. Provided this aim were well carried out by philosophers of education, they then might expect students to return to the subject at a later stage in their careers, having had field experience sufficient to provide a meaningful context within which to pursue their study. Such a view points to the need for teachers to take up the study of philosophy of education as part of whatever further education their professional certification requires subsequent to their initial training. This view is consistent with the notion that philosophy of education can be an essential part of a continuing liberal education.

I must give one word of caution, however. Once addicted to thinking about education philosophically, teachers often want to philosophize about everything in their daily conduct, even when a little common sense will do. Issues connected with discipline are particularly prone to philosophical explication by teachers although a smart exercise of their power would effect the most desirable end. Teachers must not be made to feel guilty about the use of common sense (cf., Nyberg, 1981): philosophy of education does not demand it. Rather, philosophy of education provides teachers with the ability to work out a point of view about punishment and to justify it, a somewhat different exercise from dealing with young Peter who is about to disrupt the class yet again

by sticking his stubby finger into Pricilla's ear. Not all issues, then, require the detailed, systematic approach explicated in Lucas's example of equity, nor does he claim this. The point is that teachers must learn when such thought as that entailed in his approach is appropriate and, more important for the conduct of classrooms, when it is not. Perhaps this last realization is the ultimate paradox of the study of philosophy of education.

CONCLUSION

In sum, I have tried to set philosophy of education at the interface of theory and practice of education. Broudy (1981) described the philosopher of education's task as one of "translation" (p. 34) for teachers, whereas Lucas describes it as "Janus-like," facing both audiences of philosophers and teachers at once. Following these insights I want to characterize the practitioners of philosophy of education as middlemen, interpreting for teachers the contribution philosophy can make to education and understanding the contribution teachers' practice can make to philosophy. It is this "interpenetration" (Soltis, 1981, p. 3) of philosophy and education which I have striven to capture, for I believe that only this characterization of philosophy of education will fit teachers to think for themselves about educational issues. It is the last desideratum that I take to be most important of all in these unsettled times in which teachers no longer can rely on established tradition. If their work is not simply to become the mere implementation of legislative mandates, such as the mainstreaming of handicapped children, in an unreflective fashion, then I believe that we must view philosophy of education in this interrelated way. Properly executed, this conception of philosophy of education, so far from a dreary exercise, may become a vital antidote to the ills of the day, an antidote that is both intellectually rigorous and personally stimulating.

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ALL THE CHILDREN OF ALL THE PEOPLE: PUBLIC LAW 94-142 AND AMERICA'S PROPOSITION FOR EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT:-When fully implemented, Public Law 94-142, which mandates equal educational opportunity for handicapped children and youth, will do much to eliminate classroom segregation of the disabled. This desegregation (mainstreaming) is bound to produce the kinds of creative encounters that, if combined with sensitive guidance and committed teaching will result in acceptance, camaraderi., and levels of awareness virtually unachievable by adults of the present generation. In this context, Public Law 94-142 is, perhaps, this nation's most rigorous trial in its quest to square principle with practice and to establish true equality of educational opportunity.

THE HANDICAPPED PERSON IN AMERICA

Handicapped persons in America find themselves surrounded by constant, persistent, and comprehensive reminders that their lives are anything but normal.

A visually impaired adolescent finds that her peers are unaware that sometimes she does not perceive their facial expressions, nods, and gestures. Worse still, those persons who are aware often are unwilling to provide her with the few audible clues she needs for adequate discourse.

A paraplegic finds himself in a world of buildings, sidewalks, and motor vehicles that are engineered to ignore his basic needs. His physical environ-

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ment imposes ridiculous restraints on him and makes outrageous demands.

Hard-of-hearing persons are reproached frequently for "hearing only what they want to hear." The implication is that they are guilty of deliberately and willfully provoking the people who want to talk with them. Their accusers find it difficult to understand that in some situations they can discriminate sounds and in other situations, they cannot. It seldom occurs to hearing persons that such factors as room noises, distance from the source of speech, room acoustics, and competing sounds all make significant differences to hard-of-hearing persons.

Scarcely anywhere in the United States can a handicapped person enter a store, restaurant, movie theater, or hotel without wondering uneasily whether he will be stared at and what those stares signify.

In employment, a handicapped person suffers severe discrimination. If he finds a job, it is usually menial or second-rate and at a lower salary than that paid to a nonhandicapped person. Statistics on the employment of handicapped people of working age are grim: Only half the paraplegics in this country have jobs; fewer than one-third of the blind have jobs; and even fewer persons with cerebral palsy have jobs. The situation of handicapped Vietnam war veterans is appalling: The rate of employment for them is a mere 13.3% whereas for nonhandicapped Vietnam war veterans the rate is 91%

Transportation, particularly public facilities, is very difficult for handicapped people. Frequently, they are denied access to public conveyances. For example, one airline is reported not to permit a blind person to sit beside a person of the opposite sex; another company refuses to accept epileptics as passangers; and still other airlines refuse to transport mentally ill persons while others refuse to provide certain services customary to such persons. Many other airlines require that a fare-paying attendant accompany a handicapped passenger in a wheelchair, although the passenger is able to attend to his own needs.

What I have described is a pattern of exclusion that is persistent, systemic, and institutionalized. This pattern developed over many years, and generation after generation acquiesced in it. Even the most enlightened among us never exhibited conflicts of conscience over society's duty to handicapped individuals. Their conditions were thought to be tragic misfortunes dealt by fate, and scarcely anything constructive was demanded by public duty except for sympathy. For the most part, we did this very well.

When a family and members' lives were disrupted by the presence of a handicapped child or adult, we urged toleration. If our moral conscience was aroused, we expressed sympathy. And when our sense of public duty was challenged, we made donations of money. But we always managed to keep our distance: We tolerated, sympathized, and donated from a distance. It was one thing to be benevolent, to be charitable toward the "less fortunate," but exceedingly difficult to be "close," to acknowledge that on a continuum of

of human capabilities, the discrete categories of handicap and intact are unreliable. There was comfort in the perpetuation of the "we"/"they" dichotomy (Sumner, 1906). The culture shock of fundamental kinship with handicapped individuals has been almost more than we have cared to face.

Now, distances have narrowed. With the enactment of Public Law 94-142, large numbers of Americans have had to come to grips with the presence of several million handicapped children and youth in the nation's schools. The law reforms a host of presuppositions about education for all. Resulting from the vision and diligence of parents of exceptional children and educators, it insures every child who has a handicap equal opportunities for an education. To the maximum feasible extent, the law guarantees an appropriate education in the "least restrictive environment," along with children who have no handicaps, for all handicapped children.

Distances have narrowed as never before. For the first time, children and their parents and teachers are required to accept the presence of handicapped children in their midst and to try to integrate them into all school activities, curricular and extracurricular. More important, the law prohibits sidestepping issues affecting the education of the handicapped population.

The issue is one of justice, simple justice. Compassion, empathy, and goodwill toward handicapped persons are not central anymore, however personally redemptive these traits may be. Providing least restrictive educational environments is primary. This objective is tangible, measurable, and mandated by the Act. Opponents of the law, the really serious ones, can only hope to inspire a revolution of their own.

THE AMERICAN PROPOSITION AND EQUAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

When it was founded, America offered the world a bright new ray of hope and a new proposition for freedom. All could come who wanted to: the poor, the rich, the dispossessed, the disenchanted, all who would leave behind old notions of birthright and adopt new ideals of initiative and achievement as measures of social standing. Many people came, leaving old homelands of denial and founding new homesteads of personal freedom and higher possibilities.

In framing the documents that set forth the ideals upon which the United States were founded, a rare coalition of gifted men worked together for long periods and on several different occasions to construct the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, and the Bill of Rights. Seldom before or since have men of such extraordinary intellect cooperated so effectively on such a monumental endeavor. The resulting documents heralded a new episode in world history and offered greater freedoms to larger numbers

of people than previously had been afforded by any other country. Yet the ideals set forth by these founding fathers never applied to all Americans. The promise and dream were exclusive. It soon became apparent that they never were meant to apply to the increasing number of Americans whose race, creed, gender, or physical disability were deemed to prohibit their participation in this great new hope for freedom and opportunity.

The glaring facts of injustice and discrimination are a matter of record. Oppressed groups were always what the esteemed sociologist Dan W. Dodson termed, "a footnote to the dream." Because of this exclusion, a cleavage appeared between the American dream and reality, a cleavage that emphasizes the great incongruence between principle and practice, between the ideal and the practice, a cleavage that is still manifest today in various and sundry forms of discrimination and prejudice.

Nowhere is the cleavage between dream and reality any clearer than in the area of education. (Nor is any institution better situated to effect change.) Here, the promise of the American plan was clear and the mandate concise. Education was to be the "great equalizer." Through education every person would be entitled, at least in principle, to realize his or her potential, not merely to repeat the biases of the environment but to change the environment to the benefit of all.

The great transformation of individuals was to take place in schools. They were to prepare students to live in a "free" society by enabling them to actualize their potentials, irrespective of circumstance or condition. Schools were to discover, augment, and validate the talent and ability of students without respect for race, creed, or physical disability. Obviously, this great plan was never realized. The American proposition was a bold, new adventure that was always uneasy with individuals or groups who were "different."

Public Law 94-142, in providing for disabled children to be educated in least restrictive environments with their nonhandicapped peers, represents the most recent and, clearly, the most important test of the resolve with which the nation continues to adhere to the principles that were established initially with fervor and commitment.

Among a series of philosophical, political, and legislative efforts to square principle with practice, Public Law 94-142 possibly presents the most rigorous test of the American proposition for education. The law evokes the highest national ideals in our quest to establish sensible yet just provisions for equal educational opportunity. If it survives ever-present opposition and, thus, worthwhile goals are achieved for disabled as well as nondisabled children, by implication, the validity of the American proposition itself will be redeemed and there will be reason for all oppressed groups to renew their faith in the quest for equal educational opportunity under the

law. If the nation's concept of equal educational opportunity cannot withstand the acid test of Public Law 94-142, the ideal itself is in jeopardy.

"THE QUIET REVOLUTION"[1]

Handicapped persons in our society have had a long history of outrageous and unequal treatment that has impeded not only their social acceptance as human beings but, also, their chances to function as human beings. Until recently, part of the municipal code of Chicago stated,

> No person who is diseased, maimed, mutilated or in any way deformed so as to be an unsightly or disgusting object or improper person to be allowed in or on the public ways or other public places in this city, shall therein or thereon expose himself to public view, under penalty of not less than one dollar not more than fifty dollars for each offense. (Chicago Municipal Code)

Denial of equal educational and economic opportunities has been and continues to be, for handicapped persons, a fact of life. Not until we admit this fact will we be able to change our attitudes toward handicapped students and take intelligent action to improve their condition.

Both attitudinal and practical discrimination against handicapped individuals have existed for some time in startling dimension. Although we have no Mount Taygetus[2] in this country on which to exhibit our infirm, the institutions we created to restrain them have been as plentiful as they have been awful. Wolfensberger wrote of eighteenth century America:

> Connecticut's first house of corrections in 1722 was for rogues, vagabonds, the idle, beggars, fortune tellers, diviners, musicians, runaways, drunkards, prostitutes, pilferers, brawlers--and the mentally afflicted. As late as about 1820, the retarded, together with other dependent deviant groups (such as aged paupers, the sick poor, or the mentally distracted) were publicly "sold" ("bid off") to the lowest bidder, i.e., bound over to the person who offered to take responsibility for them for the lowest amount of public support. (Deutsch, 1949)

Even the United States Census of the 1800s classed together "defectives, dependents, and delinquents":

> The chronic insane, the epileptic, the paralytic, the imbecile and idiot of various grades, the moral imbecile, the sexual pervert, the kleptomaniac; many, if not most, of the chronic inebriates; many of the prostitutes, tramps, and minor criminals; many habitual paupers, especially the ignorant and irresponsible mothers of illegitimate children, so common in poor houses; many of the shiftless poor, ever on the verge of pauperism and often stepping over

> into it; some of the blind, some deafmutes, some consumptives. All these classes, in varying degree with others not mentioned, are related as being effects of the one cause--which itself is the summing up of many causes--"degeneracy." (Johnson, 1903, p. 246)

Concurrently, however, there were some attempts to initiate limited education for certain handicapped persons. In 1848, Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe, a New England physician who, years before, had traveled to England to study methods to teach the blind, advocated opening a wing of the Perkins Institution in Boston as an experimental school for "idiotic" children; 10 children were enrolled, and the Massachusetts legislature appropriated $2,500 per annum for operations. Dr. Howe's report to the legislature stated,

> It would be demonstrated that no idiot need be confined or restrained by force; that the young can be trained for industry, order and self-respect; that they can be redeemed from odious and filthy habits, and there is not one of any age who may not be made more of a man and less of a brute by patience and kindness directed by energy and skill. (Kanner, 1964)

A shift in public policy toward the handicapped population in the early decades of the present century lead ultimately to the passage of Section 504, Title V of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, a significant step toward the passage of Public Law 94-142. This legislation progressed from strictly civil rights and vocational rehabilitation statues to those pertaining to education. The Smith-Fees Act (Public Law 66-236), enacted in 1920, was intended to provide vocational rehabilitation for returning World War I veterans. The Randolph-Sheppard Act (Public Law 74-732), passed in 1936, provided for states to license handicapped persons, usually veterans, to operate concessions on federal property. A most significant shift in policy and public disposition toward handicapped people was evidenced in 1943 with the passage of the Barden-LaFollette Act (Public Law 78-113). Its provisions covered the mentally handicapped, excluded in previous Acts, and made money available for medical treatment, prosthetic devices, and equipment that could facilitate the achievement by handicapped persons of more satisfying lives.

Although the enactment of this legislation reflected shifts in public attitude and policy toward handicapped indivdiuals, it was not until the appeals to the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution that fundamental education changes for handicapped children seemed inevitable. The Amendment guarantees equal protection under the law. Specifically, whenever a state undertakes to provide a benefit of any kind to any citizen, it must make that benefit available to all citizens on an equal basis, unless compelling reasons for not doing so can be offered. This guarantee is expressed in Brown vs. Board of Education:

> In these days it is doubtful that any child may reasonable be expected to succeed in life if he is denied the opportunity of an education.

> Such an opportunity, where the state has undertaken to provide it is a right which must be made available to all on equal terms. (p. 686)

Two principal cases set the final stage for the enactment of Public Law 94-142. They occurred early in the 1970s in Pennsylvania and the District of Columbia, respectively.

The first was a class action that was brought against the State of Pennsylvania in the Federal District Court alleging the state's failure to provide retarded children with access to free public education. The suit, commonly known as "PARC" because it was brought by the Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children, resulted in a consent degree to provide all retarded children with publicly supported appropriate education by September 1972.

A similar decree in the same year ended the case of Mills vs. Board of Education of the District of Columbia. The court determined that all school-age handicapped children were entitled to a free public education regardless of the severity of their handicaps.

Much of the legislation listed in this section reflects shifts in perspectives on the nature of handicapping conditions. Heiny (1971) described three discernable stages:

> From an historical perspective, special education may be viewed as developing through three successive stages: (1) treatment through the segregation and restriction of resources for survival appropriate for people called different, (2) caring for people regarded as different by providing resources required for their physical existence, and (3) instructing such people so that they may be incorporated into existing, dominant social systems. (quoted in Lance, 1976)

Public Law 94-142, which mandates equal educational opportunity for handicapped children and youth, was signed into law on November 29, 1975, following an 83-10 vote of affirmation by the U.S. Senate in June and 375-44 in the House of Representatives in July of that year. Weeks of deliberation disclosed these facts.

1. Nearly two million children in this country were being excluded from education solely because of their handicaps.
2. Half of the nation's eight million handicapped received less than the appropriate educational services to which they were entitled.
3. Many handicapped children were improperly placed because their handicaps were undetected.

(Exceptional Children, 1977)

To many lawmakers who had no previous knowledge of the plight of the handicapped, these facts were startling. From an historical perspective, then, Public

Law 94-142 is the climax of hard-fought efforts to rectify injustices and prejudices of long standing. Its passage marked the end of a successful, quiet revolution that will be remembered for years to come.

AND A LITTLE CHILD SHALL LEAD THEM

Where Do We Go From Here

Since America's inception as a nation, the American proposition to its people and the nations of the world has been that freedom and justice are basic human rights of the first order; that these rights must extend to all persons regardless of birth, material wealth, or personal circumstances; and that the collective resources of the country shall be rallied in support of any initiative to assure every person a fair and equal chance to take advantage of the opportunities such freedom implies. Thomas Wolfe affirmed this ideal in stirring prose:

> To every man his chance; to every man regardless of his birth, his shining golden opportunity; to every man the right to live, to work, to be himself; to become whatever his manhood and decisions combine to make him. That is the promise of America. (quoted in Warner & Slade, 1974)

Almost as dramatic as the ideal is the fact that the promise has not been realized by persons in many quarters of American society. Injustice, inequality, and denial of basic freedoms are a matter of record. Yet the proposition itself was one of process, not product. That is, the plan was not to guarantee the ideal but to assure that the ideal could be sought. In other words, the nation was not to be judged by the fulfillment of its ideals at any one time but by its processes, its searchings, its willingness to change.

Nowhere is the testing of our nation's intent to provide a fair and equal chance to all Americans more pivotal than in education. Equal educational opportunity is an ideal, the full realization of which requires perennial redefinition. Today, this ideal faces what is perhaps its most exacting test: Can equality of educational opportunity be extended successfully to handicapped persons who are placed in regular classrooms? The nation's schools, as in the past, are summoned to provide an answer.

Public Law 94-142 sounds a clarion for the social and educational rights of handicapped children and youth. It seeks to establish for them the same rights to education that already exist for their nonhandicapped peers. Acclaimed as the most significant U.S. legislation since the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Bill, Public Law 94-142 is, perhaps, the most significant education legislation ever.

The Crucible of Attitude

The importance of the "quiet revolution" is a matter quite apart from the "rightness" or "wrongness" of Public Law 94-142. Debates about the Act undoubtedly will persist. However, the law is likely to bring into sharp relief the question of whether substantive attitudinal changes, even in the long range, will result from the new structural arrangements mandated by the Act. The warning, "You can't legislate attitudes," when applied to a host of discriminatory practices, is by now a common cliche. The belief is widespread, nevertheless, that once social structural conditions (e.g., specific forms of discrimination) are changed values and attitudes will follow.

The problem that seems likely to benefit most from compliance with Public Law 94-142 is that of societal attitudes toward handicapped people. The concept that facts do little if anything to change attitudes is as common as it is unproven. Certainly, however, no one is ever cured of prejudice without knowing the true facts. Ethel Alpenfels, the anthropologist noted,

> Prejudice is a social problem. Like illiteracy, disease, and poverty, it has causes that we must try to understand if we are to work together to correct its evils. It does not necessarily follow that if we know the facts we shall immediately change our attitudes toward others, but factual information is necessary for any intelligent action. The scientific way of thinking can help to teach the lesson that mankind has never fully understood: namely that many races, many religions, many nationalities can live together in understanding and peace. (Alpenfels, 1946, p. 12)

Facts alone may not change attitudes but they lay the firm foundation for eventual understanding. It is what we do after we know the facts that counts. Facts plus understanding plus a desire to conquer prejudice lead to constructive action. A living, personal commitment to the acceptance of disabled individuals must become a reality. This full acceptance cannot be theoretical; it must be applied and, like any application it must begin with a minority of one. The commitment, ultimately, must be personal.

When classrooms are made more inclusive as a result of Public Law 94-142, inevitably children will acquire perspectives that are different from those of their parents. The very fact that handicapped and nonhandicapped children must share classrooms, playgrounds, art studios, shop rooms, rest rooms, and field trips means that they cannot help but become accustomed to seeing each other and to being together. Indeed, one can look upon the methods that were used to enforce segregation (e.g., separate schools; fire hoses; lynchings; "special" classrooms and schools; and stigmatic labeling) as ways of preventing different peoples and groups from coming together and getting to know each other. Thus, the school experiences of students today are the

antithesis of those of their parents and must lead to changes in the way handicapped children are perceived. We are approaching the day when a disability will no longer be a relevant variable in determining educational opportunity, employment, and community participation.

In pondering the outcome of this grand encounter, we can only speculate on how this aspect of twentieth century America will be treated in future history books. Will we be described as a caring, compassionate people of whom some were handicapped--physically, mentally, and emotionally? Will they report that all persons--intact and handicapped--shared this age and place, shared also their challenge to lead productive lives, and joined hands to help to make the world a better place for all? Will history record how our nation, when it finally accepted the opportunity to change long-standing patterns of neglect, error, and prejudice, no longer sought to deny these mistakes but, instead, reached into the stores of its justice, compassion, and humanity to produce the kind of support necessary for handicapped people to assume more productive lives and more equitable participation in our society?

It really boils down to this: Attitudes toward disabled people developed over long periods of time and, like other prejudices, can not be changed over night. It is unlikely that any sudden awakening producing widespread change will occur. What we can do, however, is to work to eliminate institutionalized discrimination against disabled people, irrespective of attitudes. Attitudes will follow, even if decades removed.

Public Law 94-142, when fully implemented, will do much to eliminate the classroom segregation of disabled children and youth. This desegregation will lead to the kinds of creative encounters among children that will result in acceptance, camaraderie, and levels of awareness virtually unachievable by adults of the present generation.

Children take for granted ideas toward which their parents can only grope. Adults possess the heavy burden of "knowledge" and fixed notions about the world and its people, their capabilities, and indeed, their limitations. More often than not, our notions about these limitations are as much the cause of the limitations as they are inaccurate and defeating.

In order to facilitate these changes, we must re-examine our outmoded thinking about how change takes place. The idea that each generation must scale precisely the same obstacles and meet and resolve exactly the same issues and difficulties as their forebearers, just is not so. Children are natives in a world to which adults never can belong. What seems difficult to adults may leave children wondering why it was ever a problem in the first place.

Still, adults, especially teachers and parents, have a pivotal role to play in passing along to children the opportunity to form their own judgments and opinions, not merely to repeat the biases of the past. This requires

commitment, hard work, planning, and painful breaks with established tradition. In order simply to provide children with a chance to lead the way, adults must have the vision and willingness to work hard at what is surely a noble goal.

TEXT NOTES

1. The term "Quiet Revolution" is used widely to refer to the events leading to the passage of Public Law 94-142. The earliest use of the term is attributed to Dimond (1973) in an early article on the litigation surrounding the education of handicapped children.
2. The legendary mountain on which the Spartans left their afflicted or defective children.

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ALL THE CHILDREN OF ALL THE PEOPLE: A DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVE

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Before I offer my observations, let me summarize Hodges's argument: There is a clear pattern of discrimination against the handicapped which conflicts with out ideals of equality; Public Law 94-142 is necessary to end institutionalized discrimination in education; beyond that the challenge we face is to change our attitudes toward handicapped people; if we face this challenge honorably, conditions will improve for our handicapped citizens and one of our most valued ideals will be saved from a bad case of tarnish.

THE CULTURAL CONTEXT

In making this argument Hodges points to the prominence of the "American proposition" in the cultural context in which the passage of Public Law 94-142 occurred. After we understand his argument, we should look further, especially to economics, technology, and social thought. For the purpose of discussion, let me offer some speculations.

Fortifying the passage of the Act were some pervasive trends in social thought. (a) Herbert Gans (1973), the noted sociologist, identified a general trend toward equality in post-World War II America, not just between handicapped and intact people but, also, between black and white, men and wo-

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men, and adults and children. (b) Throughout the mid-1960s and into the early 1970s there was a greater acceptance of differences and diversity. Cultural diversity was honored. Individual differences were tolerated. For many people, being different was an aim; being "freaky" was in. The acceptance of differences during this period, along with the movement toward "more equality," can be viewed as supports for the idea of mainstreaming.

Beyond trends in social thought, concrete technological developments were changing the nature of work. Because many jobs began to depend on machines rather than the strength of backs and arms, handicapped people were brought into the work force. Their ability to be productive, profit-making citizens may have had more to do with the end of their isolation than rhetoric about equality. Additionally, technological improvements in learning apparatuses for handicapped students made it possible for them to be integrated into regular classrooms.

In the realm of economics, we should remember that Public Law 94-142 was passed before petrol-politics, before inflation and high interest rates, and before supply-side "recovery" programs, when the economic picture was brighter. Our beliefs were buoyed up by two decades of steady economic progress. Many Americans were convinced that the American pie was growing large enough for everyone to have a piece. The belief that there was plenty for everyone fueled a host of federal programs for the disadvantaged, and a generous hand was stretched out, even to the handicapped. Now, talk of scarcity is more common than talk of affluence; "free market capitalism" and "rugged individualism" are the buzz words of the day. The American pie is shrinking and the once out-stretched hand is being drawn in.

In other words, the developments in our economic, technological, and social spheres, which were important ingredients in the cultural context that made Public Law 94-142 possible, have shriveled up.

THE GREAT EQUALIZER

Hodges recognizes that our educational system has not been the "Great Equalizer" of American society but he still hopes that it can work in that direction for handicapped youth. If the past decade of historical and social research into education has had one consistent finding, it is that American schooling through its formal and informal operations has maintained, not eliminated, social divisions. (For general examples, see Jencks et al., 1972; Ogbu, 1978; Spring, 1975.) This conclusion may not cheer us but it suggests a more sober assessment of what is likely to happen. Providing equal opportunity is just one of many functions of education. Another is to sort and certify the "able-bodied" for the great American work force. Do not be confused by the contradictory nature of these functions; American schooling is full of ambiguity and contradiction.

It seems that Hodges is hopeful because he believes that the contradiction between our values of equality and our actual social conditions will be resolved by attitudinal shifts, especially if children and adults are presented with factual information and provided with opportunities to interact with handicapped people. This proposition rests on a blend of two theories of attitude change.

The first, generally called the "consistency" theory, assumes that cognitive imbalances or contradictions result in attitude changes,[1] that is, when two beliefs are at odds, the inconsistency that exists causes one to be dropped or altered. In our case, the tension between "ideal" and "practice" is the stimulus for change. This point of view assumes that humans need consistency and balance and that they act rationally to secure this psychological state. It is not always so. It may be true sometimes for some people, otherwise, seeking consistency may be relatively unimportant in comparison to seeking novelty, complexity, approval, achievement, or power (Shaw & Skolnick, 1973).

The second theoretical proposition, that face-to-face interaction among previously estranged groups improves attitudes, has been called the "contact hypothesis" for reducing prejudice. Personal interaction with other groups may be necessary for improved attitudes but there are some important qualifications: In some instances, contact intensifies initial prejudices; in others, when the situation allows only superficial, role-bound interaction (as classrooms may), attitude change may not result. Additionally, antagonistic social norms can block full interaction and, thus, hamper attitude change. On the positive side, if participants are of relatively equal status, and if they are working in a situation that rewards cooperative behavior, then positive attitudes are likely to develop (Wrightsman, 1977).

Improving attitudes toward handicapped students is not a mechanical process of just mixing together handicapped and nonhandicapped children. Attitudes will not necessarily change by the pointing out of contradictions in our way of life, nor will fundamental change take place if the "handicapped problem" is restricted to the educational arena. I do not raise these qualifications to discredit the aims set forth by Hodges but to argue that the road to their realization may be rougher than he acknowledges. When arbitrary roadblocks are removed, our society will be richer with the full participation of its handicapped members, and their lives will be more meaningful and fulfilled. Roadblocks will be moved as attitudes change and vice versa. The movement will be interactive and gradual.

THE ANTHROPOLOGIST'S ROLE

I would like to conclude with an observation on the role of anthropologists in educational deliberations. Hodges has taken a time-honored anthropological approach in the study of society, namely, to tie the phenomenon under investigation to its cultural context. Relating mainstreaming to the "American proposition" is a start in this direction.

Another approach used by anthropologists is ethnographic field work in which the anthropologist enters the field to study the details of how people live and learn. A classic example is Margaret Mead's Coming of age in Samoa. Using this approach, anthropologists could investigate many of the questions that are not answered in Hodges' paper, for example, how do structural changes impact on people's attitudes and their behavior toward one another? In face-to-face interactions, what variables effect attitudinal shifts? What happens on a day-to-day basis in mainstreamed classrooms to reduce social distance among students or to increase it? If children do develop positive attitudes toward handicapped peers, are those attitudes passed on to their parents or other adults?

Hodges writes eloquently and passionately about handicapped people, but not with the precision of a scientist. In our business we need to feel the vigor of our ideals and to face the challenges they present; these are the motivations that keep us working. But we also need to go beyond inspiration and proclamations because the value of our work lies in careful investigation and analysis. We should do more than offer assumptions; we should test them. And as anthropologists, we are in the unique situation of possessing the methods to do just that.

One parting comment: Our accomplishments may fall short of our ideals, but the disappointment will not bankrupt our ideals. We may be frustrated because the facts of our social life do not match our expectations, but our ideals will persist, and so should we. Preachers keep preaching, even though they always face sinful congregations. Firefighters go to work every day knowing that the last fire will never be put out. Doctors work around the clock, yet sickness prevails. These men and women do their work, let us do ours.

TEXT NOTES

1. Examples of this perspective include Festinger's cognitive Dissonance theory, Heider's balance theory, and Osgood's congruity theory.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION: THE TEACHER AS COUNSELOR

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ABSTRACT:-Teachers traditionally have been concerned only with the cognitive dimensions of teaching and learning. Students, however, possess many developmental psychological problems that interfere with cognitive processes. Hence, when a teacher integrates affective counseling processes with cognitive teaching procedures, a more effective learning environment is established. The student becomes intellectually free to learn because inhibiting psychological concerns have been mitigated or overcome.

A refinement of the established client-centered counseling viewpoint in its application to teaching and learning is presented in this paper. Client-centeredness is supported by abundant research evidence of its effectiveness in both couseling and teaching. Because it is an attitudinal and process commitment, a teacher can apply it in responding to those affective needs of students which inhibit learning. It has two phases: (a) The teacher-counselor establishes a relationship bond with students by owning and expressing traditional client-centered facilitative attitudes, and (b) the teacher-counselor meets the individualized psychological needs of students that were identified during the initial relationship building.

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In previous years, regular classroom teachers had the responsibility of meeting the educational needs only of those students who were deemed "normal." Today's teachers are called upon to meet a new challenge, one with greater demands on teachers professionally and psychologically, that is, to accommodate in their regular classrooms the handicapped or special needs students who are being brought into the mainstream of American schooling. Thus, teachers must be sensitive to the emotional, human, personal, and social needs of both students with special needs and their nonhandicapped peers. It is my contention that teachers can more adequately fulfill these functions if they know something about the fundamentals of counseling: how to use counsling techniques as a supportive process to make participation in classrooms a beneficial experience for all students.

Why are teachers required to become involved with the mainstreaming of handicapped children and youth? The answer lies not only in the provisions of Public Law 94-142 but, also, in the ethical and moral dimensions of distributive and retributive justice.

DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE

Distributive justice is based upon the concept that all students should have equal access to educational opportunities. Hence, all students should have equal access to a teacher's resources, skills, time, and energy. This is an American fundamental egalitarian credo and it finds its expression among teachers who afford every student equality of educational opportunity, positive regard, and human concern, regardless of the student's race, sex, religion values, life style, ethnic affiliation, or handicap.

RETRIBUTIVE JUSTICE

Justice is retributive when it is rendered to people who have been denied it previously. Handicapped youngsters, for example, too often have been denied access to educational rights and advantages which the majority of children have taken for granted simply because they are the majority. Retributive justice demands that young people with special educational needs be given equal access to the opportunities and advantages which have been denied them in the past. It means acceptance of the idea that something is owed to students who are handicapped, disadvantaged, or discriminated against, that they must be accorded the same rights and privileges as all other children as a matter of simple justice.

When the least restrictive environment for handicapped pupils is determined to be the mainstream classroom, the decision is a moral imperative to provide these youngsters with access to regular educational opportunities.

Educators who are committed to the concepts of distributive and retributive justice fully support mainstreaming. These concepts are the rationale for meeting the needs of minority students in schools which, heretofore, have focused only on the needs of the majority.

Not all teachers, however, support the effort to integrate handicapped students into regular classrooms. According to Gickling and Theobald (1975) and Shotel, Iano, and McGettigan (1972) many regular and special teachers have attitudinal reservations toward the placement of handicapped children in regular classrooms. Sproles, Panther, and Lanier (1978) rated the potential for attitude disequilibrium under Public Law 94-142 as great, and they listed some contributions to this disequilibrium as follows:

1. The regular teachers' apprehension and resentment at having handicapped children added to their classes;
2. The special education teacher's input into the regular teachers' operations;
3. Resentment toward special education teachers' small classes, abundant materials, and seemingly more flexible schedules;
4. Parents of the handicapped children becoming involved in their children's education (apprehensions for parents, students, and teachers can arise);
5. Apprehensions and resentments about the material, personnel, and extra time required for exceptional students, their parents, and the community;
6. Apprehensions of regular students and handicapped students as they integrate; and
7. Resentment of all adults for the increased paperwork and legal formalities required by PL 94-142. (p. 212)

The authors themselves support mainstreaming, which they indicated in the following statement:

> PL 94-142 presents a magnificent means to help realize the goals of social equality and human development, which both the profession and nation as a whole recognize as both right and necessary. (p. 212)

Westling and Joiner (1979) were both wistful and realistic in their comments on the effect of Public Law 94-142:

> For many of us, life was easier a few years ago. Whether we were regular or special education teachers, principals, or counselors, our roles were fairly well defined. It was not difficult to understand the nature of our professional responsibilities in terms of the types of children we would serve, how often our services will be delivered. Mainstreaming has changed this to a great extent. Regular classroom teachers must now serve children with cognitive, academic, and/or social behavior problems. (p. 207)

Teachers must be prepared to meet the emotional or affective needs of handicapped students in regular classrooms. So too must they be able to respond to the effect of handicapped on nonhandicapped students. McIntosh, Minifie, Rotter, Salmond, and Turner (1979) stated the need for such skills simply and succinctly.

> The affect created in a classroom by the placement of a handicapped child is tremendous. Teacher trainees must be taught to deal with such affect. (p. 162)

The ability to respond to affective needs requires some knowledge of the fundamental skills of counseling. An introduction to those skills is offered in this paper.

THE APPLICATION OF COUNSELING TO TEACHING

The counseling approach described here is an adaptation of client-centered counseling which was conceptualized and developed by Carl R. Rogers (1942, 1951, 1954, 1961, 1967, 1969, 1970, 1972, 1975, 1977, 1980; Rogers & Meador, 1973; Rogers & Wood, 1974). What started as a process that was applicable only to one-to-one counseling has been broadened to apply to an ever-widening range of human interactions: teaching, organizational behavior, family relations, parenting, group processes, marriage and its alternatives, leadership, pastoring, and human and emotional problems in general.

I have been identified with the literature of client-centered counseling since 1963 (Boy & Pine, 1963) and have extended and refined the Rogerian viewpoint over the years (Boy & Pine, 1982). The application of client-centered counseling to teaching has been my enduring professional commitment (Boy, 1958; Boy & Pine, 1979; Pine & Boy, 1976, 1977a, 1977b, 1979a, 1979b).

Voluminous research supports the effectiveness of client-centered counseling. The following excerpts are typical testimonies:

> It must be noted that the client-centered approach has led to, and is supported by, a greater amount of research than any other approach to counseling or psychotherapy. (Patterson, 1973, p. 412)
>
> Perhaps more than any other single approach to psychotherapy, client-centered theory has developed through research on the process and outcomes of therapy. (Corey, 1977, p. 57)

According to client-centered theory, a person's ability to think and to profit from any learning activity that requires the use of the mind depends upon the person's first being emotionally free to think. Feelings, emotions, and personal problems often interfere with the ability to reason. For example, if students sitting in a classroom are the victims of abuse, divorce, drugs, neglect, or any of the dozens of incapacitating problems that are chronicled in our daily newspapers, then they expend so much effort on those

problems they have little or none left for the acquisition of academic knowledge. If we expect students to learn in the classroom, then we must first attend to their emotional problems in order to free their minds to function cognitively and to absorb subject matter.

A teacher who understands the application of client-centered theory to classrooms is deeply committed to helping students to learn subject matter. But an integral part of that help is attending to students' personal and emotional concerns, to those psychological dimensions that interfere with learning. Some traditional teachers may say that attending to psychological problems is someone else's responsibility, that they are employed solely to teach academic content. But if the content is not being absorbed by students then the teacher is responsible for finding out why the students cannot learn and then attending to their problems.

The teacher's responsibility to improve the emotional statiblity of students by functioning as a teacher-counselor is not a new idea. It was advanced most urgently by Arbuckle in 1950 and reinforced by him a few years later (Arbuckle, 1965):

> It is crucial to note that the school is the only social organization that for many years houses within its walls all of the individuals who might now or who will, later on, be described as mentally ill. (p. 141)

THE TEACHER AS A COUNSELOR

Two basic phases characterize an effective counseling relation.

1. The teacher builds a trusting and facilitative relation with the student which becomes the foundation for all interactions between them and furthers the student's potential to be productive. In other words, when a teacher has a caring relation with a student, the youngster responds positively to the teacher's credibility.

2. If the teacher has build an effective relation in the first phase, then what the teacher says or does in the second phase tends to elicit positive responses from the student. Phase two, then is effective essentially because the student trusts the teacher, a trust that was initiated and developed during the process of relation building. Therefore, if the teacher concentrates on first building a relation with the student, then the result of the counseling will tend to be positive.

Any approach to counsling yields more positive results if it is founded upon a close and human relation. The existence of such a relation enhances the effectiveness of whatever approach is applied subsequently. Thus, when a teacher has developed a substantive relation with a student in phase one, in phase two that teacher is able to use any natural and logical method of

counseling which is appropriate to the student's needs. Without a relationship and without personal credibility, the teacher's effectiveness is greatly diminished in the second phase of counseling. Students respond to persons. After the teacher establishes human credibility in the first phase of counseling, the credibility enables the second phase to be effective.

The development of a substantive relationship requires that the teacher possess identifiable positive attitudes which are communicated to students through the teacher's verbal behavior. The possession of these attitudinal components will help to build the substantive relationship that is so crucial to the first phase of counseling. Without demonstration of these attitudes, the teacher cannot expect the second phase of counseling to be productive.

Relationship building between teacher and student is one beneficial outcome of phase one. Another equally valuable outcome is the full and accurate assimilation of the student by the teacher. The term "assimilation" means the absorption of the totality of the student's attitude and behavior to gain an awareness of his or her hopes, fears, desires, attitudes, motives, life style, self-concept, defenses, and essence as a person. Assimilation gives the teacher a more accurate understanding of which counseling approach will yield the best results with a particular student during phase two. Far too many teachers choose strategies on the basis of only partial awareness of students' values, motives, and behavioral objectives, and the result is marginal synchronization between students' needs and teachers' response patterns. Phase one should enable a teacher to assimilate a student's motivations and, therfore, to make a far more accurate judgment of which approach will be most beneficial for the particular student during phase two.

Assimilation provides teachers with more focused understanding of a student's full range of attitudes and behaviors. Without this insight, teachers often will make the mistake of working on an obvious problem while deeper and more debilitating problems go unattended. Such problems are not identified by either student or teacher when their relation is superficial. If teachers do not take the time necessary to penetrate and absorb a student's deeper and more influencing attitudes and behaviors, the student-teacher relation never rises above the superficial level.

The two distinct advantages of phase one are that (a) the teacher has a meaningful technique for building a helping relation and (b) the teacher has the knowledge to more deeply and accurately assimilate the full range of the student's attitudes and behaviors. Deep and accurate assimilation of the student contributes significantly to the knowledge base which the teacher must have to meet the needs of the student in phase two.

PHASE ONE

Teacher Attitudes

More than any other theory of counseling, the client-centered approach focuses on a teacher-counselor's attitude toward a student as the primary influence for establishing an effective counseling relationship. The attitudinal components of the client-centered view are as follows:

Empathic understanding. The teacher-counselor is able to penetrate deeply how the student feels, from the student's viewpoint. This understanding requires the teacher-counselor to hold a selfless attitude, one that is neither moralistic nor judgmental but that perceives the student's inner world of meanings within the student's frame of reference.

Acceptance. The teacher-counselor respects students whose values, behavior, and psycho-social experiences are different from those held by the teacher. Poets, philosophers, and theologians have called this "an attitude of love." The acceptance of students is manifested by teacher-counselors who are psychologically secure.

Sensitive listening. This attitudinal quality requires the teacher-counselor to be sensitive to the student's inner world of meanings. It requires a selfless attitude and patience: Instead of talking at a student and demonstrating his or her authority, the counselor-teacher takes the time to listen to what the student is feeling and saying.

Authenticity. A student has a positive response to a teacher-counselor who is genuine, who does not try to evade or manipulate encounters with a student. This attitude of authenticity enables the student to feel and respond in an authentic manner, that is, not to erect facades which, too often, distort interactions. Students hide behind facades when they feel they must please teachers.

Presence. The attitude of presence means that the teacher-counselor is involved in the relationship with a student and is not distracted by extraneous conditions. "Presence" means "giving a person your undivided attention" or "concentration." It means being so "present" and committed to the importance of a dialogue with a student that he or she feels like a very special and important person.

Emergence. The teacher-counselor realizes that a change in a student's attitude and behavior is a very individual process that occurs at a different time interval for each because of the influential variables in each youngster's life (parents, siblings, peers, the learning environment, and community values). Thus the teacher must be sensitive to the pacing that is best for each student.

Equalizing. The teacher-counselor forms a relation with a student in which each is equally powerful. Too often there is an imbalance of power in

relations between teachers and students. Typically, the teachers hold all the "picture" cards in the power deck whereas the students are left with "low-digit" cards. An attitude of equalizing gives the student the supportive feeling that he/she is dealing with the teacher as an equal rather than an inferior.

Communication

The basic response pattern in developing a helpful counseling relationship is the reflection of feeling. No teacher can expect to positively influence the attitude and behavior or a student in the second phase of counseling unless the teacher is able to demonstrate verbally that he or she cares for the student.

In a counseling relation students expect to be understood, accepted, and able to reveal feelings and attitudes in a facilitative atmosphere; they expect the relation to be equal; and they expect the teacher to be empathic, a sensitive listener, authentic, to possess a sense of presence in the relation, and to create a pattern of communication that will encourage the emergence of the student's personhood. In other words, students want the teacher-counselor to be a receiving person.

Reflecting a student's feelings enables the teacher to enter the student's private perceptual world; to understand and empathize with what it means to be this student; to have this handicap, perhaps; to have this background; to undergo this set of experiences; and to live within this range of attitudes and feelings. When the teacher is able to communicate empathy to a student through the reflection of the student's feelings, the student senses that it is acceptable to express previously hidden or denied feelings. Indeed, the student feels an expansion of personal awareness in this process and identifies closely with the teacher who is enabling the self-awareness to occur. The student develops a sense of trust in the teacher and an increased feeling of closeness to the personhood and gravitas of the teacher. This is a supportive feeling for the student because, finally, in our fast-moving and technological world someone cares enough to hear and empathize with the student's perceptions and feelings. It is an expanding and enriching personal evolvement for the student and he or she develops a bond with the teacher who is enabling this growth to occur. The teacher enables the student to sense this bond by engaging in the process of reflecting the student's feelings, not the words, but the feelings that undergird and give affective meaning to the words.

In reflecting the student's feelings, the teacher assumes the student's internal frame of reference, perceiving experiences as the student perceives them, and identifying with the feelings that undergird the experiences. When

the teacher is able to make this existential identification with the student's feelings, he or she then must translate that identification into words that accurately represent the student's feelings; to mirror those feelings so the student may become aware of and internalize their existence.

To identify accurately with the student's feelings and to transmit to the student the awareness of them, the teacher prefixes his or her reflections of the feelings with such phrases as

You are saying....

You feel....

If I understand you correctly....

I'm not sure I follow you, but is this it....

I gather that you mean....

Let's see if I really understand that....

Some teachers are able to identify so deeply with the feelings of a student that their reflections of feelings gradually move from saying, "You feel that ...." to "I feel that...." This kind of transition takes place when the teacher develops such an empathic identification with the student's feelings that it becomes more natural to use "I feel...." rather than "You feel...." when identifying those feelings. Using "I" rather than "you" is a quantum step forward for the teacher who is engaged in the process of reflecting feelings; when the step is taken it should occur naturally, as when the teacher feels so closly drawn to the student's feelings that the most communicative response possible is the most personal.

The following reflections by teachers of students' feelings convey how deeply the teachers identify with those feelings:

> I never could speak to her.... I was always afraid that I'd be criticized.
>
> It's difficult to be me.... I want to but I never seem able to simply say what's on my mind.
>
> I wish I could get angry...but somehow I just don't think that my anger would be heard or accepted.
>
> I feel myself moving toward becoming a more confident person and it's exciting!
>
> I wish that I could stop being my own worst enemy.... Sometimes I feel that if I could like me then things would begin to improve.
>
> I'm confused.... I was never in this kind of position...before I seemed to have a sense of what to do.
>
> If I could only do it then maybe my anxiety and loneliness wouldn't be so crippling.
>
> There are times when I don't even understand myself...times when about all I know about me is my name.

Note that the preceding statements are teachers' responses to the feelings of students. They are reflections of feelings that are very important to the students. They are responses which teachers can give comfortably after they have accurately absorbed and internalized the students' feelings. This response pattern is the foundation of building a substantive counseling relationship. If the pattern of response does not develop, teachers cannot expect significant results in the second phase of counseling. Phase one must be achieved successfully if phase two is to be effective.

PHASE TWO

Transition from Phase One

If the teacher makes the necessary investment in the relationship-building phase of counseling, then the practices of phase two will be naturally developed by the teacher and accepted by the student. In phase two of counseling, the teacher bases the transaction with the student upon what is clearly identified as student needs; and these needs are clearly made known to the teacher by the first phase of counseling.

The identification of a student's needs in phase one enables the teacher to determine what specific behavior he or she must manifest in phase two in order to assist the student. The investment in the necessary components of relationship building in phase one enables the teacher to know what actions must be taken in phase two. Phase one of counseling develops mutuality and cohesion between student and teacher; and this mutuality and cohesion enables phase two.

In phase two of counseling the teacher has available a number of responsive options, and each must be matched with and be congruent with the student's needs. The options are in the human and helpful attitudes, techniques, and methods which are natural, logical, and spontaneous reactions to students (Coulson, 1970).

Essentially, in phase two, the teacher can continue the process of reflecting a student's feelings because this approach best meets the needs of this particular student; or the teacher can use another method because it best meets the needs of the particular student. The teacher has full flexibility to use whatever response pattern addresses the particular needs of particular students.

Should the teacher decide that a more directive approach would better meet the needs of a student, and if the needs of the student were clearly identified in phase one as a result of the substantive relation between student and teacher, then the teacher's behavior in phase two will be heard, internalized, and acted upon by the student. The teacher insures this re-

sponse from the student in phase two if the relationship-building components of phase one were adequately developed. All teachers who are inclined toward more assertive and directive approaches to counseling, will have a greater assurance that students will respond to them if the teachers have built a substantive counseling relation with students. Persons hear and respond to friends, not strangers. This simple principle indicates that the more assertive and directive teacher first must achieve an affective bond with students (phase one) so that her or his interventions will influence the attitudes and behaviors of students (phase two).

The length of time that it takes a teacher to build a substantive relation with a student will vary according to the teacher's credibility and relation-building skills and the student's needs and responses. The higher the degree of credibility and relation-building skills, the sooner the teacher will achieve a phase one substantive relation with a student, even in the first counseling session, perhaps, if the student is receptive to the teacher's caring qualities. Some teachers may have to invest six or more counseling sessions to relationship building, especially if he or she has not achieved a high enough level of credibility and relationship-building skills and the student is inclined to be distrustful of the teacher's qualities. Teachers need keen and perceptive judgment to determine how many counseling sessions must be invested in phase one, and when it is appropriate to start the transition to phase two. The student and teacher variables that determine the time of the transition become more clearly known to the teacher when he or she gains experience in the counseling process.

Choices

Before the teacher actually reaches the point of employing a particular method to meet the specific needs of a student, the transition from phase one to phase two must occur. The essential transitional activity revolves around making a sound judgment on which phase two process can accurately meet the needs of this student with this problem. The success of phase two depends upon both the effectiveness of phase one and the accuracy of the teacher's judgment.

When the teacher's awareness of the student's attitudes and behaviors is limited and partial, the teacher should not move ahead with phase two. The advance would not be beneficial for the student as long as the teacher has but a limited and partial reservoir of information upon which to base a phase two process judgment. In such a case, the teacher should make a greater investment in continuing the phase one relation with the student in order to develop enough of an informational base for a sound judgment on which phase two process is best for the student.

The process used with the student in phase two must be not just a guess but a sound judgment with a strong base in the awareness of the student's attitude and behavior which was acquired through the assimilation process during phase one. Assuming that phase one has been effective, the teacher can move toward choosing the phase two process that will be most beneficial for the student. The judgment must always be made in terms of the student's need, that is, which process will yield the highest attitudinal and behavioral gain for the student?

Guidelines

1. The emotionality or rationality of the student will determine which phase two approach is best for the student.

An important aspect of the teacher's judgment on the most appropriate approach in phase two is whether the student tends to respond best to either a rationally or an affectively based approach.

Some students learn to engage in maladaptive behavior because the intellectual process of information is a certain and definite influence in the formation of that behavior. Because rational influences play a central role in the causality of such a student's maladaptive behavior, a rational process can be applied for the resolution of the problem. With some students a clearly rational approach to the solution of a problem influences the student to change the maladaptive behavior.

Other students learn to engage in maladaptive behavior under the influence of their affective functioning. These students intellectually know the difference between behaviors that enhance or diminish the self but affectively and viscerally they feel compelled to move toward and engage in maladaptive behavior. With such students, the influence of affect is so compelling that the resolution of the student's problem lies in the teacher employing an affective approach in phase two.

Therefore, in phase two of counseling, the teacher must recognize whether a rational or affective approach best meets a particular student's needs, and this judgment rests upon matching the approach to the influence on behavior.

2. The student's progress in phase two is proportionately related to the teacher's investment and success in phase one.

Phase two is not automatically productive. It depends on the teacher's effectiveness during phase one. If phase one was a beneficial experience for the student and resulted in the desired relationship building and assimilation, then the stage is set for phase two to be an effective experience. But if phase one had little positive effect upon either student or teacher, then the stage is set for phase two to be ineffective.

An effective phase one is the catalyst for an effective phase two, that is, there is a clear proportional relation between the two phases of counseling.

3. The needs of the student must always be paramount in phase two.

When developing a phase two approach the teacher always must be certain that it will be congruent with the student's needs. During phase two the teacher is faced with the temptation of meeting his or her needs rather than those of the student. Or the teacher may possess a bias toward only one way of working with students; should the teacher succumb to such a bias, he or she often will lose sight of this student, in this situation, with this particular configuration of needs.

The objectivity established during phase one of counseling must not be lost in phase two. Phase one, if it is well developed by the teacher, provides a built-in opportunity for the teacher to widen and deepen a desired objectivity toward the student. This objectivity must continue into phase two so that the teacher can keep the focus on the needs of the student rather than allowing the teacher's needs to intrude. Doing so requires a high level of self-discipline by the teacher because it means that the teacher has a higher respect for the student's needs than for the teacher's.

4. The teacher's phase two approach must be based upon an accurate reading in phase one of the student's needs.

Phase two of counseling will tend to be productive if the teacher uses an approach that is based upon an accurate assimilation of the student during phase one. Phase two becomes effective because the teacher has taken the time necessary, in phase one, to absorb the student's attitudes and behaviors. When the student has fully discussed and examined attitudes and behavior in phase one, and the teacher has fully assimilated them, then an accurate reading of the student's goals, values, motives, and needs is possible. But this accurate assimilation can occur only in proportion to the student's degree of self-disclosure, which depends largely upon the teacher's ability to create a phase one relation in which the student feels safe enough to be open and honest about personal goals, values, motives, and needs.

5. Regardless of which approach is used in phase two, it should give evidence that the student's behavior has improved.

Having students feel good about themselves is a desired and primary goal of counseling. Having teachers feel good about the effectiveness of their counseling is another desired but secondary goal of counseling. However, if feeling good about oneself were the only goal of counseling we would be in trouble because there may be less expensive, less involved, and simpler ways of helping students to feel good about themselves.

Feeling good about oneself is essentially the congruence between what a person is and what he or she would like to be behaviorally. For the self to feel fully good, positive self-referent words must be matched with self-enhancing behavior, and there should be solid evidence that the self-enhancing behavior exists. A student's improved self-concept must be evidenced in observable behavior.

6. Phase two can include a non-counseling approach or solution if it more accurately meets the needs of the student.

Some counseling loyalists see benefits occurring only when the counseling relation is carried on in the context of person-to-person talk. To some behavior modification specialists, benefits occur only in actual behavioral experiences.

Which is generally the more effective approach is not a valid issue. For the counseling teacher, the basic and actual issue is which is the better approach for this student, in this relationship, with this identified set of needs. For one student the talking-out process may be the best mode to influence behavioral change; for another student, the talking-out process may yield little, and this student will change behavior only through concrete and understandable actions that influence the development of positive behavior.

Learning which approach is better for a particular student occurs when the teacher has assimilated the student in phase one. However, all counseling teachers should realize that phase two cannot be predetermined. It becomes a known quantity when we select the appropriate and effective phase two approach for this student.

7. The teacher must be prepared to go back to phase one relationship building if the phase two approach is not producing results.

When phase two is carefully considered and constructed it generally tends to meet the student's needs. If, however, the student's behavior indicates that the selected phase two approach does not meet his or her needs, then a reassessment of the student's attitudinal and behavioral needs is appropriate. Reassessment is best accomplished by going back to the communication fundamentals of phase one. By doing so the teacher is able to gain a more accurate and deeper understanding of the motives, goals, and attitudes that influence the student's behavior.

If the phase two approach does not yield results, teachers often find that their assimilation of students in phase one was neither complete nor deep. Therefore, instead of struggling through phase two with approaches that are proving to be ineffective, the teachers should return to phase one where they can develop better assimilation of the students and reestablish relationships.

Anyone lost in the complexity of a behavior clarifies that behavior by returning to a much more simple and understandable form of that behavior. This simple principle of human experiencing is most appropriate when the teacher's phase two approach is not yielding results. By returning to phase one, the teacher is able to acquire the additional information he or she needs to make a more accurate judgment on a more appropriate phase two approach.

BASIC COUNSELING CONCEPTS

Phase I

The student expects...

...to be given the opportunity to explore and clarify feelings and attitudes;

...to be respected as a person;

...to be treated with justice;

...to have an equalized relation with the teacher;

...to be heard and understood;

...to develop a trust relation with the teacher; and to possess the opportunity for self-actualization.

Phase II

Many students...

...desire to solve or resolve their problems;

...know themselves well and are, therefore, in the best position to solve or resolve a problem;

...possess the ability to develop self-determined solutions;

...can achieve self-actualizing behavior;

...can solve specific problems because of improved self-concept; and

...desire to be sensitive to the causes that prompt certain behaviors.

Other students...

...desire teacher assistance and/or intervention in solving a problem;

...possess limited self-knowledge;

...are unable to develop self-determined solutions;

...have difficulty in becoming self-actualizing;

...develop an improved self-concept based upon their ability to solve specific problems;

...desire to change a behavior without any concern for the causes that induce the behavior; and

...are inclined to be concrete.

CONCLUSIONS: SOME PROPORTIONAL EFFECTS

. Counseling is effective in proportion to the qualitative assimilation of a student's attitudes and behavior in phase one and the accurate accommodation of the student's needs in phase two.

. Phase one of counseling has a proportional influence on phase two; if phase one is successful then phase two will be successful; if phase one is ineffective then phase two will be ineffective.

. Phase two of counseling cannot stand alone; it is proportionately dependent upon the existence of phase one.

. The student's progress in counseling is proportionately related to the credibility of the teacher; if the teacher possesses credibility then the student will make progress; if the teacher does not possess credibility then the student will not make progress.

. Students progress in counseling in proportion to their trust in the teacher; students who have trust in the teacher make progress; students who have little or no trust in the teacher make little or no progress.

. The progress of a student in counseling is proportionately related to the voluntarism of the relationship; the student who voluntarily enters the counseling relation makes progress; the student who is coerced into the counseling relation makes little or no progress.

. The success of counseling is proportionately related to the quality of the teacher as a person; counseling is successful when it is done by a person of quality; it is unsuccessful when the teacher possesses minimal human qualities.

A DEMOCRATIC IMPERATIVE

Counseling, generally, enables a teacher to use a process to help special needs students to enter the educational mainstream with their "normal" peers. It benefits nonhandicapped students by helping them to become more sensitive to the needs of disabled youngsters and more aware of those personal attitudes and behaviors that inhibit or enhance learning. Counseling possesses much potential for enriching the educational experiences provided for all students.

I hope that this paper prompts readers to further investigate the counseling process through reading, study, workshops, and courses. The information contained here is merely an introduction to the concepts and processes of counseling.

When the fundamentals of client-centered counseling are integrated with contemporary models for teaching students subject matter, the teacher's awareness of effective teaching is enriched and expanded; but the ultimate beneficiaries of this integration are those handicapped and intact students who are fortunate enough to be exposed to the attitudinal qualities of such a teacher. They will learn about themselves and each other and become more accepting and understanding of the differences they see in each other. This is an important legacy for a teacher to pass on to students in a pluralistic society. Because of what they learn in school, students will be more inclined in the future to be active participants in preserving the human foundations of our democracy.

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EXTENDING THE PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION

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It is becoming quite obvious that the role of a teacher in a mainstream school or classroom is undergoing radical change. No longer is it possible to educate children as if they were all the same, all possessing similar abilities, interests, attitudes, and needs. Clearly, Public Law 94-142 has created a situation in which teachers must be particularly sensitive to the differences among children, and they must be able to respond to the differences to be effective. It is from this realization that Boy has suggested that an important psychological foundation for prospective teachers is one of information and skill in the area of counseling.

I believe his position that teachers need to possess the skills of a counselor is to be applauded. Too many teachers do not establish the caring, helping relation with their students which Boy describes. Sadly, these teachers are not always judged to be incompetent. In fact, in many schools the tough unyielding taskmaster who turns out a brilliant scholar receives undue recognition and community support. This is not to say that some students do not respond to pressure or high standards. For a large majority of exceptional students, however, a supportive attitude of acceptance toward their limitations and concern with their achievement, as well as with that of more capable individuals, are necessary. What exceptional students require are teachers who are able to assimilate a child, to gain awareness of a student's hopes, fears, attitudes, motives, and life style. I rather like Boy's term--

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"to assimilate the child." Without assimilation of the student's full range of attitudes and behaviors, later attempts to aid that student may be fruitless or superficial.

As Boy suggests, after a caring relation has been established between teacher and student, the second phase of counseling begins in which transactions between the two occur. It is here that the teacher acts to provide genuine assistance to the student. Teacher actions in phase two are more likely to be helpful if the caring relationship has been established. In the second phase, teachers should employ a variety of alternative treatments depending on the nature of the problem. Boy supplies several guidelines to govern the selection of possible treatment approaches; the primary one is to consider the needs of the child. Non-counseling approaches, for example, behavior modification, are one possible alternative. I find it interesting and reassuring to see an approach that is primarily based on Rogerian precepts open to the possible use of behavior principles. This intergration makes the counseling role supported by Boy more flexible in dealing with a variety of situations.

Boy has made a convincing case for the inclusion of counseling skills in the psychological foundations provided prospective teachers. I am concerned, however, that little was said about how these skills should be acquired. Granted that the paper's primary focus is to identify and justify a set of attitudes and procedures that are provided in few teacher-training programs to date, space does not permit the inclusion of suggestions for training teachers in the procedure. However, one reason teacher trainers have neglected these types of skills in the past has been because they are not clear about how the skills can be taught. We should spend more time thinking about how teachers can be aided during training to become capable of empathic listening and demonstrating an attitude of authenticity.

One partial answer to this problem may be not so much in training as in the selection and admission of teacher candidates. In a time of declining enrollments when we all feel the need for warm, tuition-paying bodies around us, it may not be too popular to talk of setting additional conditions at the point of admission. Many states already are requiring minimum competency in language and mathematics prior to entry to teacher training, however. Perhaps we also should seriously consider the identification of those teacher candidates who demonstrate some initial semblance of the traits described by Boy. I am not an expert in the area but it appears to me that training for empathy and caring is not easily done, particularly with undergraduates. Would training be aided or shortened by identifying the most likely candidates? Can the traits necessary for counseling be easily measured so that early selection can occur? If they cannot, how will we know when students have achieved the necessary skill at the end of training? These are questions that I believe deserve our consideration.

Another dimension of the training problem is the development of professional maturity among prospective teachers. Fuller (1969) established that teachers progress through a developmental sequence of concerns with their profession. This sequence contains a pre-teaching phase, which is marked by non-concern with the specifics of teaching; an early teaching phase, which is characterized by self-evaluation (based on one's ability to control a class, understand and explain subject matter, and cope with a superior's evaluation); and a later teaching phase in which the well-being of pupils is considered. It seems that the assumption of the counseling role outlined by Boy should occur in this latter phase of professional growth. The problem of aiding teachers to acquire counseling skills is, thus, the problem of helping students to move from non-concerns to self-concerns to concern with others. Fuller and Brown (1975) suggested the provision of competencies that allow the reduction of self-concerns early in training through engagement in individual counseling procedures, actual teaching experience prior to course work, and continual support and feedback by advisers. In other words, the modification of existing programs is necessary to achieve both goals. If teachers are to be counselors as recommended here, then a restructuring of teacher-training programs must occur.

The concepts and principles of counseling and clinical psychology and personality development provide the foundation for the role of counselor. Several other types of psychological knowledge and beliefs are necessary to equip a teacher to face the demands of meeting the needs of handicapped learners, however. They fall into two categories: those bodies of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that closely relate to and supplement the role of teacher as counselor, as described by Boy; and those that contribute to other necessary roles and functions of teachers who desire to be effective with exceptional children. First, the additional psychological learning related to the counseling process.

RELATED PSYCHOLOGICAL ATTITUDES AND KNOWLEDGE OF TEACHERS AS COUNSELORS

Attitudes Toward Exceptional Children

In order to establish a caring, helping relation with exceptional children teachers must possess the view that they are responsible for all students in their charge. The idea that an exceptional child is "someone else's problem" must be replaced. Teacher trainees acquire this myth during their first years of training. In a survey of one of my classes, 74% of those responding indicated that "children with special problems are taught in special education classes by teachers with special training," and 65% agreed with the statement,

"I will not be teaching special education children in the future." Such separation from exceptional learners rarely has occurred for most teachers, of course. A 1977 study by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped reported that 68% of children diagnosed as exceptional according to some category were educated in regular classrooms (McDaniels, 1978). Typically, teachers have resisted such integration; in a survey by Gickling and Theobald (1975), 60% of the teachers sampled were found to prefer special to integrated classes. Of particular concern was the anticipation of problems in classroom management brought about by differences in ability and motivation.

Such attitudes are best overcome by positive personal experiences, not by sermons on the theme of "you should be accepting," "you ought to have empathy," and the like. Opportunities to observe classrooms where handicapped children are successfully integrated should be sought and provided for individual students, so that the prospect of coping with great diversity does not appear so threatening. If such field experiences are not available, simulation exercises in which individuals play the roles of teachers and handicapped learners within a regular classroom may be of use. Role-playing situations in which students "assume a disability" such as blindness or immobility for a day have been used with great success.

Interpersonal Communication Skills

Programs for mainstreamed children require the cooperation of regular classroom teachers with special education consultants and administrative personnel. Communication skills that allow cooperating professionals to share ideas, information, and responsibilities are necessary. Traditionally trained teachers rarely acquire such skills. In fact, usually they are encouraged to "listen to the experts" and "refer anything you can't handle," with the implication that classroom teachers are the receivers of advice and counsel from others, not senders. What must be impressed on prospective teachers is that persons who interact with children on a daily basis probably acquire much more information than experts who observe the children irregularly at best. Specialists need the information teachers have gathered and vice versa. Short of psychotherapy or "assertiveness training" sessions, teachers in training must gain confidence in their ability to contribute substantially to the planning necessary for a mainstreamed child. Confidence in one's ability is acquired slowly through many positive experiences, of course, but psychology classes can contribute to its growth. One type of classroom activity related to this goal is practice in presenting reports to peers on fictional students in a fictional classroom. Many sets of dummy grade cards, test profiles, anecdotal records, and observational data pertaining to exceptional children are commercially available.

Knowledge of Psychometrics and Observational Techniques

Establishment of a close interpersonal relation with an exceptional child can be enhanced if one is skilled in observing and assessing behavior. Traditional diagnostic judgments of exceptional learners relied upon standardized instruments. For a variety of reasons, a major one being that standardized instruments often are not related closely enough to academic competencies, reliance upon traditional formal assessment tools is on the wane. The future promises increased use of information techniques that relate more directly to school settings and tasks. Classroom teachers will be expected to conduct this type of continuous, formative assessment, which means that teachers will need to be skilled in criterion- and domain-referenced testing. Tollefson's paper addresses this issue in depth.

In addition, teachers will need to be skilled observers of student behavior, particularly able to note possible indicators of atypical perception and performance, for example, squinting, a loud voice, letter reversals, perseverations, unrealistic aspirations, and so on. Dillon's paper comprehensively addressed those developmental characteristics that interact with learning. The implication is clear: if teachers are in a position to assimilate students, the psychological foundations of education must provide trainees with opportunities to observe, assess, and interact with exceptional students.

Knowledge of Psychological Theories of Learning and Development

To form a close helping relation with a child, to understand his or her needs enough to provide appropriate instructional alternatives, requires knowlege of how the child develops and learns. Knowledge of psychological theories of learning and development remain an important foundation of teacher education. In particular, the two main families of learning theories--behaviorism and the congitive-developmental position--should be emphasized. Behaviorism is the starting point for an understanding of task analysis, a major remedial approach in the instruction of exceptional children. The analysis of content into small components to be learned in concise, incremental steps is particularly suited for many handicapped learners. This does not imply, however, that task analysis should be introduced without critical consideration of its assumptions.

The cognitive-developmental position that general experience rather than a specific arrangement of skills is necessary to promote learning contrasts with behaviorism. In fact, the whole notion of learning hierarchies should be presented to trainees, not as a given, but as a hypothesis still requiring substantiation. Students in teacher-education programs should be presented with critical research, for example, Madaus, Woods, and Nuttall's (1973)

study, which indicates that learner variables, such as grade level, ability, and familiarity with the material, interact with the learning of content which is arranged hierarchically. If task analysis is to become dominant in remedial instruction, one should acquaint students with the possibility that a teacher's characteristics, learner's motivation and attitudes, and the setting in which learning occurs may affect the sequential, step-by-step progress of task analysis. If various learning theories are presented so that their advantages are revealed, sound instructional decision making is more likely to result.

OTHER AREAS OF PSYCHOLOGY

Four other areas of psychological knowledge and principles appear to be important to the role and functioning of teachers of exceptional children. Although there may be others, these are directly related to what I perceive to be the special needs of teachers of handicapped youngsters. They are (a) social psychology and the principles related to group process; (b) theories of behavior and personality that underlie various approaches to classroom management; (c) psychology of motivation, particularly attribution theory; and (d) concept learning and information-processing.

Social Psychology and Group Process

In a study of our recent teacher graduates at the University of Kansas, a common complaint was heard: "I can handle the individual exceptional child in my class; it's dealing with the rest of my class, while I'm working one-to-one that's a problem. There's a lot of resentment of those exceptional children who require a lot of attention." Such a concern suggests that the maintenance and control of social behavior is a crucial need in mainstreamed classrooms. Knowledge of the psychological principles that affect group interaction is necessary. Of particular value are those psychological principles that led to the development of classroom procedures and programs which are useful in facilitating social behavior. For example, the "Jigsaw Classroom" concept developed by Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes, and Snapp (1978) attempts to improve cooperation. In a jugsaw classroom students are assigned to learning teams. Each team member is given a reading assignment and he or she becomes an expert on that particular segment of the chosen topic. Assignments may vary in reading difficulty. Experts from the different teams meet to discuss their topic and then return to their teams to share the "expertise" with their teammates. Quizzes are administered after team members have taught one another their specialities. Performance on the quizzes produces points for the team. In order to do well on the quiz, a player must listen carefully as

each topic is presented by the expert. Thus, all group members receive practice in communicating and listening to others. Analysis of the effects of this approach indicates more positive ratings of team members. It is as though each member held a valuable piece to a jigsaw puzzle, which others need. By relying on others to furnish their parts of the puzzle, attitudes toward these others are likely to improve.

A related approach is the "Team-Games Tournament" or TGT (DeVries & Slavin, 1978). Student teams in TGT consist of four or five members of differing ability; overall, the groups are equal. Team members tutor one another in the content to be learned. Then the students compete individually against other teams in running tournaments; because students are matched with those of similar ability, the competition is fair. Thus, all students, regardless of ability, have a chance to contribute high scores to the team efforts. It is in a team's interests, consequently, to help its members learn.

The goal of these approaches is to use all students' potentials and to foster cooperation. Concern with the achievement and well-being of peers seems to be essential to successful mainstreamed classrooms.

Psychological Principles of Classroom Management

The management of classroom behavior long has been identified as the major problem area for classroom teachers. It is no less true in classrooms in which handicapped children have been placed. Teachers must have a basic knowledge of classroom management, particularly knowledge that is based on psychological theory and research. Three management approaches with a grounding in psychology are (a) behaviorism, (b) ecological psychology, and (c) clinical-humanism. Time does not permit extensive description of them here. It should be noted, however, that behavioral principles (e.g., the Premack principle, contingency contracting, and time-out procedures) have proven to be effective in eliminating or changing inappropriate behaviors.

Kounin's (1970) work on the ecology of the classroom indicates that teachers who are able to organize the classroom so that opportunities for disruption are minimized, and who know how to deal with problems such as "overlap" and "intrusion," have the fewest discipline problems. These "withit" teachers arrange the learning environment in advance of instruction so they appear to be on top of the situation from the beginning. Clinical-humanistic approaches (see the ideas of Dreikurs, Gordon, Glasser, Redl, and others) have as a main goal the development of a problem-solving orientation to discipline problems, where the teacher and student stay in communication--identifying problems, working out possible solutions, and describing possible consequences. The emphasis is on mutual agreement between teacher and student on what the problem is, what effect it has on all parties, and what should be done about

it. Although these three approaches have different psychological bases, they can be used in an integrated manner if the teacher is familiar with their rationales.

The Psychology of Motivation

Another area of importance is motivation: why individuals behave the way they do and what factors initiate, maintain, and direct human behavior. Teachers of handicapped children must understand the theories of motivation of which there are many. Especially, the teachers should be exposed to the attribution theory, developed by Bernard Weiner (1979). Briefly, the theory deals with how individuals perceive the causes of their own success and failure, particularly in the area of achievement. Weiner believes that success or failure depends on ability, effort, task difficulty, or luck; and different individuals attribute their success or lack of it to these dimensions or combinations of them. How an individual perceives success or failure has much to do with his or her classroom performance, effort, and self-esteem. Weiner made various suggestions for how educational procedures can take into account the learner's attributions and modify them where necessary.

Concept Learning and Problem Solving

Finally, I suggest that psychological principles of concept formation and problem solving are also important to teachers of most handicapped learners. This area is achieving prominence because it has been noted that many exceptional students, particularly those who are learning disabled, process information in unique, sometimes inappropriate ways. Recent research on learning styles, for example, indicates that older learning disabled children suffer from inefficient strategies in analyzing new information. The psychology of concept learning suggests a variety of ways to present information and structure lessons so that learning is enhanced for many students.

These several areas of psychology, I believe, are part of a sound foundation for teacher education. Other people may point to different content. The list of what teachers need to know can become long. To put this knowledge in place in a curriculum, and to allow for the other foundation areas, as well as the various methodologies and general education information, requires a lengthy training program. I find it interesting that Boy and I represent two institutions that recently have committed themselves to extended teacher training. Perhaps that is what it will take to insure adequate foundations preparation for our teacher graduates.

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HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING: AN INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT:-Public Law 94-142 challenges us to identify in normal and exceptional students those learner characteristics that are instructionally relevant. The study of human development and learning may be best accomplished from an individual differences perspective. In this paper the author outlines the significance of individual differences to the understanding and practice of adaptive instruction. A model for the diagnosis of learner characteristics and subsequent prescription is discussed. Prospective classroom teachers must be familiar with adaptive principles and mechanisms if they are to provide learning environments that are conducive to maximizing each student's learning and educational experiences.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Our course, "Human Growth, Development and Learning," is a lecture and laboratory sequence that was conceived of as part of a broad commitment to the study of learner characteristics, that is, student diversity, in order to maximize educational opportunities for all learners. Each unit of study in the lecture and laboratory combination, indeed, the entire course, takes as its point of departure the premise that learners differ along sociocultural, developmental, and cognitive dimensions and that these differences must be

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accounted for instructionally if we are to maximize learning for all students. Our special effectiveness stems from our applications of the principles of adaptive teaching as we instruct our own students in those very same principles. The lecture-laboratory setting is ideal for adaptive instruction. We cover course material in a variety of ways and try to match a student's placement on various cognitive processing parameters with salient aspects of instruction.

The field of individual differences in learning and instruction has emerged as a new and potent area of study in educational psychology. Its ancestral field, differential psychology, viewed cognitive abilities as static psychological constructs. Individuals were believed to differ on the amount of ability possessed in a certain domain, and a test score was seen as the embodiment of this ability, that is, ability was seen as a product.

The individual differences perspective offers a radical new view of learning and instruction. The task for educators and psychologists is not to determine how well given individuals perform on tests that purportedly measure particular cognitive skills, but, rather, to elucidate individual differences along salient information-processing parameters. The emphasis is on process, on different routes to the same instructional goals, when the goals are appropriate to the students' differences, and on different educational goals when students' needs and characteristics are best served thereby.

There is outlined in the following subsection the model which we use in our course in Human Growth, Development, and Learning. It shows the possible increments in learning when relevant intrapersonal characteristics are identified and taken into account, and the learning difficulties stemming from conflicts between a learner's preferred modes of processing information and particular task demands.

Model of Individual Differences

From an individual differences perspective, learning is a function of individual characteristics (i.e., intrapersonal variables), and aspects of instruction (i.e., situational variables). A major contribution of work in this area is the demonstration that student characteristics often interact with instructional variables to affect the amount and type of learning taking place. Figure 1 shows the theoretical relation of the constructs.

The teacher or diagnostician begins with some initial student achievement, typically, the performance of a task in a subject-matter area (e.g., reading or mathematic scores). The teacher first must seek to isolate the factors and processes that are responsible for the differences observed in children's performances before instructional treatment can be prescribed. Note that the more heterogeneous the population of concern (in areas relevant to the par-

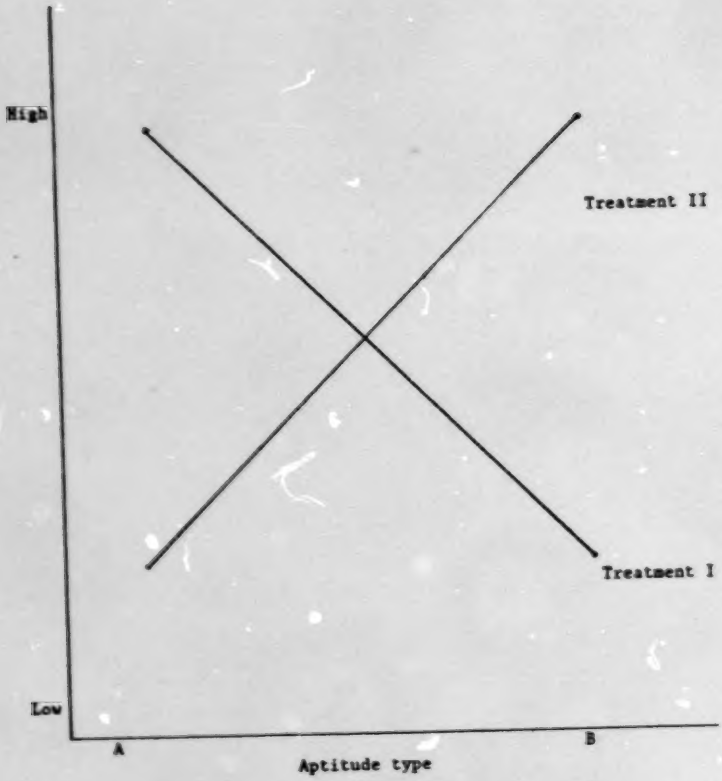

Fig. 1. Example of an aptitude by treatment interaction (ATI).

ticular learning task), the more complex is the teacher's work. Although complexity may increase, the importance of the work also increases because to optimize instruction for all learners we must know why each performs as he or she does. In classrooms containing handicapped students, there is likely to be manifest a greater range of learning characteristics and number of relevant learner characteristics than in classrooms containing more homogeneous groups of students.

Learner characteristics refer to "broadly defined" aptitudes. Snow (1979) defined an aptitude as an individual difference dimension that is related to individual differences in learning or performance. Measures of "intelligence" or "academic ability" exemplify aptitude constructs (i.e., aptitude "narrowly defined"). However, any individual difference construct that is related to

learning (e.g., measures of cognitive style, special ability, personality, or interest) defines aptitude. Individual differences in learning-task performance are believed to be due to cognitive processes that also underlie individual differences on relevant aptitude measures.

Categories of Learner Differences

In considering the vast constellation of possible learner characteristics, I have found it useful to expand upon a schema proposed by Weiner and Cromer (1967) and extended by Levin (1977). This framework helps to clarify the ease and course of diagnosis as well as of prescription.

When reading comprehension is used as an example of a desired performance, four sources of differences can be identified. (Some sort of task analytic procedure should be performed initially to isolate the behavioral components of the specific performance; see Gagné, 1974, for a relevant discussion of task analysis.)

1. A particular learner's poor output in a specific area or on a specific task may be due to what Weiner and Cromer called a "defect" but, more appropriately, may be called "malfunction," that is, damage resulting in a condition of malfunction. The condition is considered to be relatively permanent, typically stemming from sensory-physiological factors. Although characteristics in this category are perhaps the most straightforward with respect to diagnosis, remediation typically is beyond the scope and resources of regular classroom instructors. My subsequent discussion, therefore, does not include this category of learner differences.

2. In contrast to the preceding category in which relevant mechanisms are malfunctioning, and the third category in which essential process are absent, we are concerned here with "disruptions," that is, the presence of a mechanism that interferes with learning performance. Disruptions may result from motivational and emotional difficulties. The prognosis for remediation of a learner's specific difficulties is quite good when impeding mechanisms fall into this category. Inasmuch as the student's skills are not inadequate, the sometimes lengthy process of skill mastery is avoided. Admittedly, affective problems at times can be difficult to pinpoint clearly and then they may be somewhat resistant to change. Nevertheless, the prognosis for remediation is encouraging.

3. This category of learner differences comprises various "deficiencies," each of which, as previously mentioned, is characterized by the absence of some essential function. Deficiencies can center on prior knowledge, technical skills related to a particular performance, or one or more elementary processes which, in turn, may be manifested in various distince performances. Knowledge would include, for example, relevant vocabulary; technical skills

would include behaviors such as deriving meaning from printed messages. Basic processes include encoding, rule abstraction, rule application, retention, and retrieval. Note that the distinction between technical skills and basic processes may not always be easy to make because these skills are manifestations of a subset of basic processes in a particular skill area. Also included in this category are metacomponents (Sternberg, 1980) or executive control processes that activate expectancies and regulate cognitive processes (Rohwer, Rohwer, & B-Howe, 1980). Attentional processes also fall into this category. Whereas instruction in specific knowledge and technical skills has gone on since the first learners and teachers were brought together, formal or systematic instruction in basic or more elementary processes is a newer enterprise. Research findings on the usefulness of information-processing diagnosis for training purposes are promising (Brown & Campione, 1977; Butterfield & Belmont, 1977; Feuerstein, 1979; Sternberg, in press).

4. This final category of learner differences centers on a "difference" between an individual's preferred mode of processing and the optimal mode for the situation of interest. When translated to performance inadequacies, these differences result in mismatches between the individual learner's preferred mode of processing information and particular task demands. Thus, although the stylistic variables do not relate to the quality of performance "out of context," they become "deficiencies" when the individual possessing the characteristics is unable to process a given set of information in a manner required by the specific demands of the particular task. An example of an important "difference" is a global-processing preference versus a preference for analysis of detail. The ease with which learners can be trained to use less preferred modes merits systematic examination. The manner in which a task analysis of a particular learning performance can be coupled with knowledge of the important categories of learner differences to help isolate relevant learner characteristics was illustrated by Levin (1977). For example, he translated the analysis of reading into a set of four questions which, when answered "yes" or "no," indicates the correct assumption which should be made about a child. The questions are, "Is the student perceptually and mentally capable of reading?" "Does the student attend to the task?" "Can the student identify individual words and word meanings?" "Does the student organize individual words, phrases, etc ?" If the answer to the first question is "no," then an assumption of defect must be made; if the answer to the second question is "no," then an assumption of disruption must be made; "no" to the third question indicates an assumption of deficiency, and "no" to the fourth, an assumption of difference (see Levin, 1977, p. 119, Fig. 5-2).

An important point to note is that I am not suggesting that some learners are deficient, different, or disruptive. Rather, I am proposing that a particular learner's performance in a particular situation may be explained by

an underlying task-related deficiency, disruption, or mismatch between preferred processing style and specific task demands. In another task, an entirely different set of strengths, limitations, and style preferences may be seen. Thus the strengths and other characteristics can only be defined in a particular learning context.

Examples of Each Category

Further discussion of each category and examples of how instructional treatments or situational variables are matched with learner characteristics to enhance learning provides a broader understanding of the range of relevant psychological processes. Prospective teachers must be aware of these processes in order to use learners' attributes to enhance their performances. (Many useful suggestions came from the work of Levin, 1977.)

Disruptions. Disruptions may be remediated by providing new information, additional incentives for learning, or more interesting material. New information, transmitted by alternative modes of presentation, may be particularly helpful when disruptions are the result of fear or anxiety. Processing strengths can be used to help to eliminate disruptive behavior so that processing weaknesses can be remediated (i.e., training in less preferred learning modes). Additional learning incentives (e.g., candy; verbal praise) should be considered when motivational problems are apparent or suspected. Although, clearly, teachers always try to make instruction interesting, consistent and/or widespread distractability or lack of attention among learners should signal the need for change. For example, varying psychophysical stimulus properties or increasing the relevance of examples can work wonders. In addition, disruptions may be remediated by effecting a better match between students and classroom environment and/or instructional strategy.

Deficiencies. The sequencing of materials clearly is important in the teaching of knowledge and skills, as are a number of curricular variables whose usefulness depends upon the characteristics of the material to be learned. When deficiencies result from lack of relevant prior knowledge, a teacher's charge is relatively straightforward. Nevertheless, teachers would do well to be mindful of situational variables that can enhance learning. Elaboration training and other learning strategy components may be particularly helpful in remediating skill and process deficiencies. (See O'Neil, 1978, for examples of training approaches and paradigms.)

So far, remediation has been discussed as the sole instructional objective. Levin (1977) noted the importance of considering intermediate prescriptions for some learners, that is, capitalizing on processing strengths or compensating for weaknesses. Such intermediate goals often are necessary because they help to establish motivation for learning, provide avenues for

learning, and "buy time" for remediation to take place. Capitalization involves presenting material in a format or modality that is consonant with the student's preferred mode of learning, that is, capitalizing on processing strengths. At the same time, remediation can be attempted by offering portions of instruction in alternative modes. Typically, compensation requires the simplification of materials in some way to minimize the deficient skills or processes.

Differences. To the greatest extent possible, teachers should be trained to recognize and help students to benefit from the use of learning styles or true "differences." We define such differences as alternative but equally proficient modes of learning and processing information. Unfortunately, few style dimensions have been reliably identified as stable, alternative, and equally successful for acquiring complex school learning. Possible examples include global versus analytic strategy, and verbal versus visuospatial elaboration. Even in the case of true learning style differences, a teacher still should bear in mind the potential usefulness of training students in other styles to enhance their flexibility. Indeed, an important characteristic of highly proficient information processors well may be their ability to switch from one strategy to another on the basis of task demands.

Development. Another important source of learner differences that warrants discussion is developmental level. It is well-documented that for instruction to be maximally effective it must be matched--or optimally mismatched--to the learner's existing cognitive organization (Case, 1978a, 1978b). Cognitive structures are believed to undergo ontogenetic change throughout the lifespan, with the result that an individual is most sensitive to certain types of learning materials and forms of logic during particular developmental periods. Given that developmental differences may be sources of "deficiency" in a nonadaptive setting, it would be productive to consider developmentally related characteristics as avenues for the matching of students with instructional variables. That is, just as students have weaknesses in unfamiliar forms of logic, so they have strengths in other forms of cognitive organization.

An individual differences approach to learning and development helps prospective teachers to understand the intimate relation between developmental mechanisms and processes of learning (Case, 1978a, 1978b). Development constrains, to an extent, the learning of material that requires cognitive structures which are not present in the learner's current cognitive make-up. Teachers must be cognizant of cognitive process prerequisites when performing task analyses prior to teaching skills and processes.

All prospective teachers must have formal exposure to the principles of learning and development. Public Law 94-142 requires these same teachers to be exposed to the characteristics of exceptional students, both developmental

and learning. An individual differences perspective helps prospective teachers to understand exceptionalities within the same framework that is used to understand nonexceptional learner characteristics. That is to say, all learner characteristics can be understood as instructionally important individual differences, characteristics that gain their importance because they can be used to enhance learning. The strength of the framework lies in its robustness. Virtually all learner characteristics and, thus, all learners, are included.

I am not proposing, of course, that all teachers be trained to recognize and instructionally remediate single-handedly all magnitudes of all characteristics possessed by all learners. Certain characteristics obviously require the added resources of specially trained personnel, both for assessment and prescription. What I propose is that exceptional and nonexceptional characteristics can be best understood by prospective teachers within a unitary framework.

A summary of important categories of learner differences and situational variables in outline form follows. The list is not designed to be exhaustive but, rather, to convey a sense of some of the important constructs which should be included in a course based on an individual difference framework to study human development and learning.

VARIABLES THAT AFFECT THE LEARNING EVENT
(Amount and Kind of Learning)

I. Learner Characteristics (Intrapersonal Variables)

A. Cognitive (Deficiencies)
   1. Inadequate skills
   2. Deficiencies in relevant prior learning (Knowledge)
   3. Basic Processes

B. Cognitive (Differences)
   1. Personality Dimensions
      a. Introversion-Extroversion
      b. Locus of Control
   2. Cognitive Style Dimensions
      a. Field dependence-independence
      b. Integrative Complexity
      c. Cognitive Complexity
      d. Bandwidth
   3. Other Processing Preferences
      a. Holist/Serialist
      b. Parallel/Sequential
      c. Sensory Modality Preferences
         1) Visual
         2) Auditory
         3) Kinesthetic

C. Disruptions
   1. Attentional
   2. Boredom

3. Lack of Motivation
4. Anxiety
5. Aggression

II. Situational Variables

A. Task Requirements
1. Main Ideas vs. Analysis of Detail/Analysis-Synthesis
2. Global/Analytic
3. Recall/Recognition/Transformation (Application)/Evaluation

B. Classroom Environments
1. Classroom Climate (Cooperative/Competitive/Individualistic)
2. Degree of Openness/Structure
3. Teaching Unit
4. Ambient Noise
5. Lighting
6. Architecture

C. Teacher Characteristics
1. All of the Cognitive Differences Manifested in Learners

D. Instructional Strategies
1. Expository
2. Inquiry/Systematic Inquiry
3. Discovery
4. Other Discussion
5. Taba
6. Socratic

E. Curriculum and Sequencing
1. Sequencing of Materials
a. Order (e.g., concrete to abstract)
b. Rate of Presentation
c. Frequency and Positioning of Feedback
d. Practice (Opportunity)
e. Programmed Instruction
1) Linear
2) Branching

2. Curricular Variables
a. Continuous Progress
b. Advance Organizers
c. Adjunct Questions
d. Multi-media/Multiple Modality consideration
e. Quality of Instruction
f. Mnemonics
g. Method of Loci
h. Peg Word
i. Discourse Analysis
j. Elaboration
1) Sentential
2) Imaginal
k. Other Learning Strategies or Strategy Components

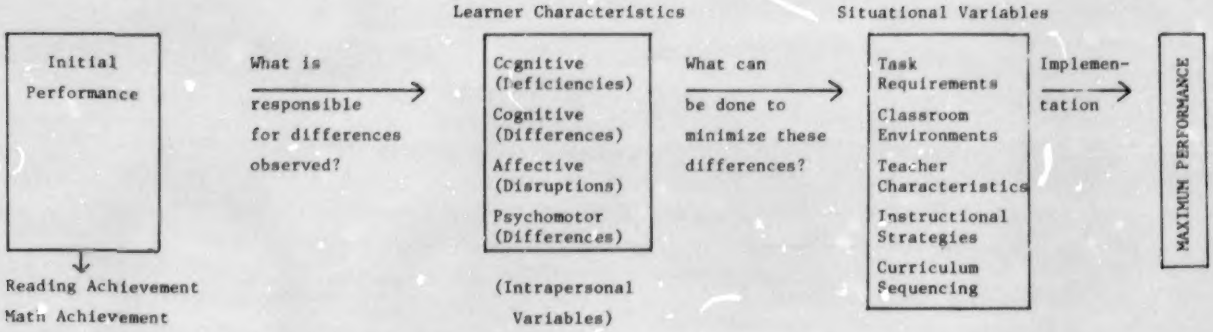

Fig. 2. Relation of learner characteristics to learning performance as a function of situational variables.

A final word of optimism is in order. Although potential teachers must be cognizant of the many relevant dimensions of learner characteristics, they also must be shown the possibilities of successfully applying adaptive instruction. When diagnosis and prescription are successful, the learning process is facilitated to a degree that more than offsets initial time spent in inquiry or assessment. Nonadaptive instruction simply does not solve the problems resulting from the magnitude and variety of learner differences. The complexity of the framework described herein is necessary to accurately characterize learners and learning phenomena. All students, nonhandicapped and handicapped, will benefit if we instruct our teachers in the adaptive principles discussed in this paper.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND PUBLIC LAW 94-142

In a theoretical framework that highlights individual differences, special emphasis has been placed on the significance of Public Law 94-142 in the study of human growth, development, and learning. Thus we have conceptualized, developed, tested, and presented an instructional package that highlights the importance of identifying relevant student characteristics to meet individual needs, particularly those of diverse and exceptional students. We include course content in such areas as characteristics of exceptional students, the relation of learner characteristics to variations in instruction for exceptional students, special motivational considerations, instructional schedules, instructional media, and instructional modes while stressing an adaptive perspective on exceptionality. In addition, each unit of study contains discussions of the manner in which psychological principles of growth, development, and learning adequately account for the range of human diversity displayed by the broad spectrum of exceptional students. Finally, our laboratory exercises have been designed to juxtapose normal and exceptional learners, and students must analyze, compare, and evaluate these learners among developmental and cognitive dimensions. An outline of a sample set of laboratory activities follows:

Education 301
Eight 2-Hour Laboratory Activities

I. Infancy: Cognitive, Personality and Social Development

   A. Cognitive Films: Uzgiris and Hunt Ordinal Scales of Psychological Development, and Brazelton measures.
   B. Infant Observation: Students complete actual infant observation, record behaviors, and complete a report, comparing the responses of normal and exceptional children.
   C. Affective Film: Origins of Interpersonal Attachments - Students view the development of attachments among various normal and exceptional children, and write a comparative report.

II. Early Childhood: Cognitive Development and Learning

A. Activity: WPPSI, Stanford-Binet, and Piagetian explorations and film. Students view a variety of nonexceptional and exceptional students performing cognitive activities, and complete a comparative report.

III. Early Childhood: Personality and Social Functioning

A. Films: Sources of Personality Characteristics, and Early Childhood Personality Development. Students view nonexceptional and exceptional children and complete a comparative report.
B. Videotapes: Modeling Aggressive Behavior. Students study early childhood social behaviors as well as affective disorders, and complete an integrative report.

IV. Middle Childhood: Cognitive Development and Learning

A. Films: Developmental Stages and Processes of Cognition.
B. Middle Childhood Observation: Students observe cognitive problem solving on tasks of learning and development among several nonexceptional and exceptional children (covering a broad range of exceptionality). Individual differences are addressed in a report in which students must ground their comparative statements in a theoretical model of learning and development.

V. Middle Childhood: Personality Development

A. Films: Students view films depicting personality characteristics and personality development, including coverage of personality disorders during middle childhood. Students complete a comparative report.
B. Observation and Assessment: Students execute informal personality assessments on 7-10 year old children and compare the responses of these children to adult responses given by their lab partners. Test results must be interpreted in a comparative report.

VI. Middle Childhood: Adolescent Social Functioning

A. Observation and Assessment: Students view psychosocial problem solving among nonexceptional and exceptional children ranging from middle childhood through adolescence. Processes investigated include classification of values, sex typing, and moral reasoning. Students complete a report comparing responses within and across age levels, and within and across exceptionalities.

VII. Adolescent - Adulthood: Cognitive Processes and Learning

A. Film: Proportions, Probability, and Combinational Reasoning.
B. Film: Exceptionality during Adolescence and Adulthood.
C. Assessment: Students use lab partners to conduct assessments of various aspects of formal reasoning. Students prepare a report, integrating these findings with lecture material on exceptionality.

VIII. Classroom Management

A. Activity: Students develop a self-management program.
B. Activity: Students develop instructional media and conceptualize instructional models designed to be optimally matched to the special cognitive or social needs of a particular exceptional learner.

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THE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES PERSPECTIVE EXAMINED

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I enjoyed reading Dillon's paper very much and I have few disagreements with her. In this response I emphasize what I interpret as her major contributions, and then for each area I expand her ideas somewhat and add some pertinent thoughts of my own.

I concur very strongly with her belief that "the study of human development may best be accomplished from an individual differences perspective," and her emphasis on adapting instruction to these differences is right on target. Our educational literature is full of exhortations to individualize on the basis of the rate of instruction (Tobias, 1981), that is, to simply allow all learners sufficient time and assistance until they achieve mastery. But there has been far less emphasis on specifying how we can individualize by the method and not just the rate of instruction. Nor have the efforts shown empirical success. Dr. Dillon is correct, then, in defining "adaptive principles and mechanisms" as "different routes to the same instructional goals," not different amounts of the same route.

We must recognize, however, that previous research that has attempted to elucidate the interactions between individual differences and instructional methods (i.e., Aptitude Treatment Interactions; ATI), has been, in the main, disappointing. Although the idea is theoretically pleasing and seems reason-

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able from a common sense view of the world, reviews by Cronbach and Snow (1977) and Tobias (1976), among others, have shown the inconsistency of ATI studies. Cronbach and Snow (1977) suggested that ATI studies are hard to run and difficult to analyze and understand, but the main problem to date may be that such studies have sought generalizable ATIs. That is, the focus of much of the research has been on theories of individual differences that interact with specific methods to result in predictable outcomes, irrespective of the learning environment. Brophy's (1979) work in teacher behavior seems to be relevant to this point. He pointed out that most recent investigations of teacher behaviors are turning up highly context-specific relations. Teacher behaviors that appear to be successful in one situation are inappropriate in others.

I was pleased to see that Dr. Dillon included such situation-specific variables in her paper. Thus, it seems that we need to consider simultaneously individual differences, instructional differences, and differences in the context of the instruction; with this emphasis we will be able to generalize the findings of our research and apply our results only to situations with similarities in all three areas. Indeed, as Cronbach (1975) pointed out, our findings may well change from decade to decade as contexts change.

Of course, the problem with this perspective, especially for people like me who prefer simple, straightforward explanations, is that as our understanding of learning becomes more complex we must process more and more variables. How frustrating! Rather than leading to parsimony, our research is leading to complexity. But it is better to be complex, even confused, and more accurately to reflect the reality of the learning environment than it is to oversimplify and overgeneralize. What is needed is a classification scheme to organize the many variables we must consider. Fortunately, Dr. Dillon explicates an organizational structure with her suggestions for categories of learner differences.

She terms the first category "damage," or "malfunctions"--relatively permanent sensory-physiological factors that impede learning. Presumably, these factors are not subject to change or modification. It is true that remediation of these factors is "beyond the scope and resources of regular classroom teachers," but to me, an educational psychologist who received little training in diagnosing these factors, it would have been helpful to consider in greater depth the identification process, particularly how to know when problems are "relatively permanent" or subject to change.

The second category, "disruptions," comprises motivational and emotional difficulties that interfere with learning. It took me a couple of readings of this section before I was comfortable with the label, and it still seems to me that "disruptions" connotes behavioral problems that are best handled by a variety of classroom management techniques because the important issue

is how to identify the motives and emotions behind the behavior. That is, how does a teacher know that a student has motivational problems which need to be ameliorated to resolve the learning problem? From my perspective as a teacher of education majors, it is best to concentrate on the various emotions that are typical and atypical at different ages and to leave the interventions to other instructors in later courses.

Deficiencies make up the third category, "the absence of some essential function." Although I agree that it may be necessary to remediate some knowledge, skills, and cognitive processes that may be absent to effect learning, I must also point out that there could easily be disagreement about what is "essential." If you side with Gagné and other theorists who believe in the sequencing of learning based on specific prerequisite material, then "essential" is easily defined; but if you adhere more to inductive learning, Gagné's "essential" components are not needed. I might also emphasize that deficiency should not be confused with development at different rates in different areas. We cannot overlook the generally wide age range in which normal children adopt certain skills. Dillon refers to this caution in her discussion of "Differences" under "Examples of Each Category."

The fourth category, "differences," is the most important, in my view. Dillon limits her discussion to differences that provide "alternate, but equally proficient modes of learning and processing information." I could quibble with that definition because it seems to me that for most learning there are more and less proficient modes regardless of the nature of the task, but the more important point is that teachers need to recognize different styles of processing information and to take those differences into consideration, especially with students who may appear to be having difficulty. Let me add, parenthetically, that we must be careful not to look too hard for differences and thereby to increase the likelihood that students will be inappropriately labeled, with resultant inappropriate expectations. This is one area of Dillon's paper I would like to see expanded. It might be helpful, for example, to explicate further the outline, "Variables that Affect the Learning Event," that summarizes general factors. And I might also be inclined to consider other variables in addition to those she terms "cognitive," such as self-concept, cultural differences, and differences in values.

To summarize to this point, it seems to me that, despite the lack of empirical research to support aptitude treatment interactions, we would be wise to study development and learning in the context of individual differences, at least as long as we recognize similarities as well. Dillon's ideas which are current and supported by other researchers, constitute a solid beginning. One area was not mentioned, however, and because of my social-psychological bent I feel compelled to comment on it at this point. We must focus not only on intra- but, also, on inter-individual differences. A substantial amount

of research establishes the nature of students' interactions with other students and teachers to have a definite impact on learning, independent of most intra-individual differences (Good, 1980; Johnson, 1980). The types of differences that are relevant are in, for example, listening skills, respecting others, perspective-taking, trusting, nonverbal communication, and empathy.

What differences, for example, exist between exceptional and nonexceptional children in modes of communication? One exciting illustration of the promise of this approach is provided by David and Roger Johnson in their work in cooperative education (Johnson & Johnson, 1975; Johnson, Maruyama, Johnson, Nelson & Skon, 1981). They demonstrated that by improving interaction deficiencies and equalizing differences, student learning is enhanced. Their research has been especially promising in demonstrating techniques for mainstreaming exceptional children. According to my personal bias we should not use different instructional methods for each individual and mitigate the interactions students need with each other. As with intra-individual differences, I concur with Dillon that all characteristics, in both exceptional and nonexceptional students, are best understood and appreciated if considered together.

Finally, I have a few comments on the college course in which these principles are taught and, more broadly, on the function of educational foundations. (a) I was interested to find a fairly strong emphasis on instructional modes to deal with student differences. (b) I think it is great to integrate the implications and programmatic applications with the development material, although in our courses we have trouble just getting through the development material. (c) From the description of the course it appears that it is more than the typical 3-hour course, and if so, I applaud accomplishing the integration of material. (d) I also like the idea of requiring direct observation of both nonexceptional and exceptional children together, rather than studying each group separately. (e) It is excellent to be able to model the approach in the format of the course by covering the material in a variety of ways and matching students' "cognitive processing parameters" with "salient instructional dimensions." I shall be anxious to receive further details of this format to see if a similar approach might be possible with our students at Virginia Commonwealth University. For instance, do special education faculty members help to teach these courses? My inclination is to use the expertise of special education faculty whenever I can, but this may be difficult, given the integrated nature of the course material.

With respect to the function of foundations courses, I think this type of approach is a vast improvement over traditionally organized courses because it allows for a more meaningful integration of theory with reality. The typical approach, in which "foundations" actually means nice-sounding theories, it seems to me, results in less effective learning because most

theories become mere traces by the time students begin their "application" courses. A foundations course must be comprehensive; in this case it should include characteristics of exceptional children. The course contents are much more meaningful, stable, and long lasting for students if the foundation is cemented firmly to the walls. I also favor the integration of psychological foundations with historical, philosophical, and social foundations, and I believe that the study of exceptional children can be approached from each foundational area. The reason for the integration is to provide students with experience in viewing exceptional children from all important perspectives. Thus, students are exposed not only to the developmental characteristics but, also, to valuable experience in analyzing problems from several viewpoints, and they learn that no one perspective by itself is sufficient to appreciate exceptional children fully.

In summary, Dillon gives us a solid instructional model that can be easily adapted to provide a meaningful integration of the characteristics of exceptional and nonexceptional children. Her emphasis on complex interactions between individual differences and instructional methods, in relation to combining the study of exceptional and nonexceptional children, provides stimulating ideas. Her model shows how most important variables can be considered together and, although this perspective is valuable despite a lack of empirical support, our future research efforts will benefit by incorporating the model as a theoretical framework.

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IMPLICATIONS OF PUBLIC LAW 94-142 FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN MEASUREMENT AND ASSESSMENT

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ABSTRACT:-Outlined in this paper are three major content areas that should be part of the foundations of teacher education: (a) a philosophy of testing and evaluation that complements the requirements of Public Law 94-142, (b) the testing and assessment skills that teachers need to develop during pre-service education, and (c) the evaluation and grading practices that are closest to the spirit of nondiscriminatory assessment required by the law.

Discussed in some detail are norm-referenced and criterion referenced test construction methodologies; interpretation of norm-referenced ability and aptitude tests; multimethod approaches to student assessment; introduction to basic measurement concepts; nondiscriminatory testing; introduction to educational technology; principles of diagnostic, formative, and sumative evaluation; individualization of instruction, application of research findings to classroom practices, and grading models; and program evaluation criteria.

PHILOSOPHY OF TESTING AND EVALUATION

Public Law 94-142 clearly enunciates a philosophy to guide education. It mandates all schools to provide each handicapped child and youth with an appropriate education in the least restrictive environment. The law also mandates that specific educational goals be developed for each such student in

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the form of an IEP (Individualized Educational Plan), and that progress toward these goals be monitored.

The concept of equal educational opportunity for all children and youth, including those with profound handicaps, is relatively new. It has been only during the last 10-20 years that a high school diploma was viewed as attainable by almost all students. For decades, educators and lay persons considered few people to have the ability to progress through the public education system and even fewer to be able to attain advanced degrees.

During the period when education was viewed as an elite activity, tests were used for selection and evaluation purposes (Bloom, Hastings, & Madaus, 1971; Bloom, Madaus, & Hastings, 1981), that is, to determine who remained in the educational system and who should be dropped. The emphasis was on classifying students and predicting who would be successful at the next stages. Today, equal educational opportunity for all is the hallmark of the American educational system. The emphasis in education has shifted to preparing all students to be independent, productive members of our complex society. Selection procedures and predictions about who should be given what type of educational opportunities are completely outdated. Thus, new testing and evaluation procedures have been designed to meet the goal of the fullest development of each student.

The distinction between the selection and development views of measurement and evaluation was most clearly enunciated by Bloom et al. (1971, 1981): The developmental role of testing and evaluation is to emphasize the fullest development of each child. Testing thus becomes a vehicle for understanding a student's aptitudes so that learning conditions can be provided to enable each student to reacher his or her highest level of learning possible (Bloom et al., 1981).

Bloom and his colleagues (1981) described their view of developmental evaluation as "encompassing"

1. Evaluation as a method of acquiring and processing the evidence needed to determine the student's level of learning and the effectiveness of the teaching.
2. Evaluation as including a great variety of evidence beyond the usual final paper and pencil examination.
3. Evaluation as an aid in clarifying the significant goals and objectives of education and as a process for determining the extent to which students are developing in these desired ways.
4. Evaluation as a system of corrective feedback to determine at each step in the teaching-learning process whether the process is effective or not, and if not, what changes must be made to ensure its effectiveness before it is too late.
5. Finally, evaluation as a tool in educational research and

> practice for ascertaining whether or not alternative procedures are equally effective in achieving a set of educational ends. (p. 43)

The following four aspects of the developmental role of evaluation should be stressed in teacher-preparation programs: (a) Tests can provide information on a student's level of learning, information that the teacher can use in planning instructional activities and individualizing instruction. (b) Tests can provide information on how effective certain teaching strategies are for students at different educational levels with different aptitudes[1] for learning. (c) Evaluation should be designed to provide systematic feedback to students and teachers on the degree to which the goals and objectives of instruction are being attained.

Monitoring student progress, providing multiple opportunities for learning, and integrating teaching and testing are implicit in Public Law 94-142. These ideas, like the concept of evaluation to enhance student development, are new. When tests and evaluation procedures were used for selection purposes, the emphasis was upon classifying individuals; thus norm-referenced tests were the means by which the goal of identifying the "best" students was accomplished. Shifting the emphasis to appropriate educational opportunities for all students demanded new test-development models. Criterion-referenced and domain-referenced test models were introduced during the 1970s (Hively & Reynolds, 1975). These tests can be distinguished from norm-referenced tests by differences in purpose and, according to Hively (1975), by "subtle" differences in the way items are written and selected for inclusion. The domain-referenced model of testing emphasizes repeated testing over the same content domain as a means of monitoring progress toward educational goals and of integrating teaching and testing.

Contrasting the purposes of the norm-referenced and the domain-referenced testing models, Hively (1975) wrote,

> Transfer and generalization are the underlying ideas in the domain-referenced testing model, because domains of items are composed to serve as targets for instruction. In that sense, the whole idea is to "teach for the test" and, at the same time, to design the testing system so that it includes all the basic ingredients that make generalization to the abstract universe possible.
>
> On the other hand, in the norm-referenced testing image, correlation and prediction are the basic ideas. Items are selected to form an efficient and easily administered scale that will separate competent from incompetent learners. There is no assumption that teaching someone to respond correctly to the test items will in itself generate the competency. Rather, teaching to the test just invalidates the prediction. (p. 5)

The importance of integrating testing and evaluation with instruction has been persuasively argued by Reynolds (1975). In the past, he noted, the dominant orientation in measurement was "prediction that supported the selection of high and rejection of low achievers" (p. 15). He called for a decision-making orientation that is directed toward individual rather than institutional pay off. His point of view is clearly summarized in the following statement:

> In today's context the measurement technologies ought to become integral parts of instruction designed to make a difference in the lives of children and not just a prediction about their lives. (p. 15)

We need to reconceptualize the role and purpose of testing and assessment in schools. Thus, I emphasize the need to adopt a developmental philosophy in presenting measurement concepts to pre-service teachers. When we introduce measurement concepts we should stress (a) the integral relation between testing and teaching and (b) the use of tests and assessment data to assist each student to attain his or her highest possible level of learning.

TESTING AND ASSESSMENT SKILLS ESSENTIAL TO PRE-SERVICE EDUCATION

Teachers have been given key roles in the assessment of handicapped learners' entry-level knowledge, the development of goals and objectives in their IEPs, and the monitoring of their progress toward these goals and objectives. Hence, teachers must acquire a repertoire of assessment skills and learn how to employ a range of evaluation methods.

Hofmeister and Preston (1981) described the impact of Public Law 94-142 on teacher-education programs as follows:

> In the past, teachers have tended to function as recipients of assessment and evaluation results. These results were most frequently presented to teachers in justification for what diagnostic specialists thought should be done with or to individual students. Today classroom teachers are called upon to be much more actively involved in student assessment and student evaluation. Their participation is important to the interdisciplinary evaluation process, and their ability to assess student skills and progress is vital to carrying out the Individualized Educational Plan. (p. 1)

Preservice education for teachers should include the following: (a) Test construction methodologies. (b) Information on interpreting standardized ability and achievement tests. (c) Introduction to basic measurement concepts. (d) Concepts central to nondiscriminatory testing. (e) Experience using multimethod assessment processes. (f) Experience using computer technology. (g) Experience developing evaluation procedures that include diagnostic, for-

mative, and summative evaluations. (h) Individualization of instruction. (i) Application of research findings to classroom-teaching practices.

Test Construction Methodologies

Teachers, under Public Law 94-142, are called upon to provide information on the achievement levels of the handicapped students in their classrooms. Thus they need to become skilled in constructing achievement tests, the area, perhaps, of greatest controversy in measurement today. Pre-service education should introduce prospective teachers to current issues in the use of norm-referenced, criterion-referenced, and domain-referenced tests.

Norm-referenced testing developed in a setting in which education was viewed as a privilege for the "brightest and best" students and achievement testing functioned to identify these students. As early as 1913, E. L. Thorndike has made the distinction between reporting how one student compared to another and reporting the content the student had mastered. Yet it was not until the early 1960s that the terms "norm-referenced" and "criterion-referenced" measurement were introduced (see Glaser, 1963). "Norm-referenced measurement" was used to describe achievement tests that reported a student's relative standing in a group, "criterion-referenced measurement," to describe achievement tests that reported a student's mastery of "specific behavior."

In 1975, Wells Hively introduced the concept of "domain-referenced" measurement. In describing the methodology used to construct a domain-referenced test, Hively wrote, in domain-referenced measurement "your job is to pin down the nucleus of each skill as completely as possible and to represent it by a large set of equivalent test items" (p. 2). The goal is to generalize from a subset of items, which are selected from a well-defined domain, the proportion of the content domain the student has mastered.

Teachers must be familiar with the preceding three approaches to measurement. They also should be acquainted with the advantages and disadvantages of each measurement model.

The objections to the use of norm-referenced achievement tests center around two issues: (a) methodology and (b) the usefulness of the data provided for instructional planning.

Methodological issues include questions such as the following: Are currently used norm-referenced achievement tests providing different information than ability tests? Are norm-referenced achievement tests content-valid measures of the knowledge and skills possessed by students reared in families from different socio-economic backgrounds? Do norm-referenced achievement tests have the same degree of predictive validity for all groups in our multilingual, multicultural society? These issues are important to both measurement specialists and educators who use data from norm-referenced achievement

tests to make decisions on appropriate educational placements and learning experiences for students. However, methodological issues are less important than the instructional planning issue to classroom teachers who desire information on students' academic strengths and weaknesses.

Do norm-referenced achievement tests provide information that is useful to teachers for instructional planning? Critics of such tests give a loud NO! They argue that the test construction procedures used to develop norm-referenced achievement tests preclude the use of the tests to plan instruction or to monitor students' educational progress.

Given the intent of Public Law 94-142, classroom teachers should know how to construct criterion- and domain-referenced achievement tests. Both insure curriculum-based tests which can be used to identify the concepts and skills a student has mastered and to monitor the student's progress toward mastery of additional instructional tasks.

Although criterion-referenced tests offer many advantages in instructional planning and monitoring student progress, they are not without problems (Hambleton, Swaminathan, Algina, & Coulson, 1978). Constructing criterion-referenced tests requires the test developer to specify completely the content domain to be assessed (Berk, 1980). A test developer should be familiar with both the task analysis and the Tyler approach[2] to generating objectives which are content-valid for criterion- and/or domain-referenced achievement tests (Bloom et al., 1981). Furthermore, skill in writing behavioral objectives is required. Finally, the test user must set standards that indicate mastery or nonmastery of the content-domain measure. A standard is a score that is used to categorize test takers according to different levels of proficiency relative to a particular objective or set of objectives. The standards-setting question is a critical one. The measurement literature reflects a variety of standard-setting models. Hambleton (1980) classified the standard-setting modes as judgmental, empirical, and combination. He recommended the judgmental methods developed by Angoff (1971), Ebel (1979), and Nedelsky (1954) as most appropriate for use by classroom teachers.

Interpreting Norm-Referenced Ability and Achievement Measures

Standardized, norm-referenced tests are not the ideal instruments for collecting curriculum-based information for instructional planning yet classroom teachers should be able to interpret their results. Teachers who have handicapped learners in their classrooms are supposed to participate in staff conferences where, often, results of norm-referenced tests are presented and discussed. The classroom teacher must be familiar with the vocabulary of norm-referenced testing and able to supplement the test data with his/her own achievement test results.

Classroom teachers have a central role in planning IEPs for handicapped learners. They also are responsible for carrying out IEPs and monitoring student progress. Therefore, it is essential that they understand the information other professional educators use to make decisions and that they are able to contribute to IEP conferences.

Finally, teachers need to be skilled in interpreting standardized achievement test scores to parents and students. The classroom teacher most frequently is assigned this task. He or she must be able to interpret standard scores, percentile ranks, grade equivalent, and content standard scores accurately.

Introduction to Basic Measurement Concepts

Classroom teachers should understand the basic measurement concepts of validity and reliability. These concepts must be presented in the context of standardized and teacher-made tests, observational data, and the rating or related data supplied by parents, teachers, and other students. From the measurement point of view, a comprehensive understanding of the concept of content validity and how it is defined and measured for norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests is a basic skill for classroom teachers. They also need to be familiar with item-analysis procedures and to have experience using item analysis to improve teacher-made tests.

Concepts Central to Nondiscriminatory Testing[3]

Recent legislation (Public Laws 93-230 and 94-142) and court decisions (Larry P. vs. Wilson Riles) have ruled that the identification of handicapped learners for special class placement and the assessment of mainstreamed and minority children must be accomplished through nondiscriminatory testing (Alley & Foster, 1978). Tests and assessment devices are nondiscriminatory when they are equally appropriate and valid for children of any race, color, national origin, or sex (Public Law 93-230). Alley & Foster (1978) defined a nondiscriminatory measure as one that results in similar performance distributions across culture groups that differ in any or all of the following respects: (a) language/dialect; (b) value system; (c) information; and (d) learning strategies.

The following assessment procedures are required by Public Law 94-142:

1. The evaluation procedure must include nondiscriminatory testing of all significant factors involved in the learning process. These include but are not limited to sensorimotor, physical, social, and cultural factors, intellectual development, and adaptive behavior.

2. The evaluation must be conducted in the child's native language, and provisions must be made to conduct evaluations in two languages or two dia-

lects if the child's primary spoken language and reading language differ.

3. Assessment on a single criterion may not be used to designate a child as handicapped. Public Law 93-230 requires a measure of adaptive behavior as well as of cognitive development. "Adaptive Behavior is the effectiveness or degree with which the individual meets the standards of personal independence and social responsibility expected of her or his age and cultural group" (Alley & Foster, 1978, p. 2).

4. Evaluation must be conducted by a multidisciplinary team that includes the classroom teacher.

With the enactment of least restrictive environment legislation, classroom teachers are assuming an increasingly important role in the identification and instruction of exceptional learners. The teachers are members of multidisciplinary identification teams and participate in program planning for handicapped learners in regular classrooms. The teachers are in the unique position of observing children's cognitive and social development. For children's parents, the teachers are the source of data on levels of skill development and adaptive behaviors. Such data are particularly important in the specification of objectives and instructional activities for handicapped learners. Finally, teachers play a major role in evaluating the effectiveness of the IEPs developed fo. handica ped children. Therefore, pre-service teachers must learn how to identify, apply, and evaulate nondiscriminatory assessment and evaluation procedures.

In addition to employing assessment procedures that do not discriminate against students from different cultural backgrounds, classroom teachers need to adopt assessment procedures that do not penalize learners' handicaps. For example, testing procedures should be tailored to the special needs of youngsters with visual, auditory, and psychomotor handicaps.

Experience Using Multimethod Assessment Procedures

Public Law 94-142 requires that no single assessment procedure be used to identify handicapped learners or to determine their appropriate educational placements. Teachers must be acquainted with a variety of methods for collecting information about students and have experience using different assessment procedures.

Self-reports, reports from others, and observations are the principal methods of collecting information on students. Teachers need to be trained to collect and evaluate data from all these sources. Self-report (tests and inventories) measures are the most commonly used assessment tools. In addition to acquiring expertise in developing and interpreting achievement test results, teachers need also to know how to use the more informal methods of collecting information, such as interviews with students and case studies of students' work over time.

Reports from others, particularly parents and teachers' colleagues, are a valuable source of information on students' abilities and learning styles. Interviews and informal rating scales are useful as well.

Observational skills are needed by all teachers. They see students in a variety of settings over extended periods of time. If they acquire the skills of trained observers during pre-service education, then they can use the skills to collect data which are necessary to the planning and evaluation of instruction in their classrooms.

Although teachers should be introduced to multimethod collections of information on students, they also need to be cognizant of the limitations of these methods. Knowledge of the basic concepts of reliability and validity must precede the use of the more informal assessment procedures. Observations, ratings, and interviews all can provide reliable and valid data if they are used appropriately. However, skill in applying these assessment methodologies requires both formal instruction and supervised experience.

The importance of supervised experience in a field-setting for the mastery of "informal" assessment techniques cannot be overemphasized. Students should learn how to collect information using one technique, develop hypotheses based upon the information collected, and validate the hypotheses using different data-collection procedures. Pre-service educational experiences need to include supervised practice in teaching and assessment so that they will be integrated into the teaching-learning process and program graduates will regard teaching and assessment as equally important activities.

Experience with Diagnostic, Formative, and Summative Evaluation Procedures

Bloom et al. (1971, 1981) have introduced the concepts of diagnostic, formative, and summative evaluation. The purpose of diagnostic evaluation is to adapt instruction to the needs and backgrounds of learners.

Diagnostic evaluation includes the identification of students' strengths as well as their weaknesses. Its use permits the identification of students' entry-level skills and the planning of instructional activities which are matched to the students' entry-level knowledge and skills. Bloom et al. (1981) noted that the traditional practice in education is to assume homogeneity of educational background and to start students at an imaginary 'zero' point" (p. 116). Diagnostic evaluation activities, however, assume heterogeneity of educational background and the need for a variety of educational activities to match to students' different entry-level skills.

Bloom et al. (1981) defined formative evaluation as the "use of systematic evaluation in the process of curriculum construction, teaching, and learning for the purpose of improving any of these processes" (p. 155). Formative evaluation in teaching includes feedback and the correction of errors; tests

are used during instruction to give students information on the concepts they have learned and the concepts they still need to master.

Summative evaluation occurs at the end of the course, after instruction; its purpose is to grade, certify, or evaluate progress.

The evaluation paradigm suggested by Bloom et al. (1971, 1981) requires the use of tests before instruction (diagnostic evaluation) to identify learners' entry-level strengths and weaknesses, and during instruction to provide feedback to students about their progress in mastering concepts (formative evaluation) and to offer help in correcting their errors, and after instruction to evaluate students' progress (summative evaluation), and at the same time, to evaluate the effectiveness of the curriculum and learning activities in achieving the objectives of the course.

These evaluation procedures integrate testing into the teacher's instructional activities. The importance of the integration is stressed by Hofmeister and Preston (1981), Lerner (1976), Reynolds (1975), and Tollefson et al. (1976). They all emphasize that testing activities must be viewed by teachers and students as part of the instructional process, and not as an isolated activity.

Hofmeister and Preston (1981), writing about the role of criterion-referenced testing, clearly enunciated the relation between testing and teaching.

> Criterion-referenced testing can ready its full potential only when it is so integrated into the day-by-day functioning of the classroom that it cannot be separated out as a "testing" activity. Indeed its contribution to the direction and programming of instructional activities should be such that the teacher sees it as indispensiable for facilitating effective instruction. (p. 36)

Pre-service education of teachers should be directed to the goal of introducing them to models of testing and evaluation that integrate testing and instructional activities. To achieve this goal, pre-service teachers need supervised experience in developing various assessment devices, administering them, and interpreting them in the context of educational plans for students. Field-based experience in administering and interpreting assessment instruments and in using assessment data to provide feedback to students about their progress should be an important component of all teacher-preparation programs. Just as prospective teachers need supervised experience in instructional activities, so too they need supervised experience in assessment and evaluation activities.

Individualization of Instruction

If pre-service teachers are taught to develop curriculum-based achievement tests and to use diagnostic, formative, and summative evaluation procedures,

then they will have the tools to individualize instruction. A teacher will be able to determine a student's entry level of knowledge, to plan instructional activities appropriate to the student's knowledge level, to monitor the student's progress in attaining educational objectives, and to maintain records of the student's rate of educational progress. Individualization of instruction requires that each teacher possess such well-developed assessment skills. He or she must be able to use commercially available tests and curriculum materials, to develop curriculum-based tests, and to adapt learning materials and assessment devices to individual students' needs and learning styles. Individualized instruction does not necessarily mean one-to-one teaching; rather it also means that a teacher has acquired the skills to adapt instruction and evaluation to the needs of individual students when it is appropriate to do so.

Application of Research Findings to Classroom Teaching Practices

Teachers should be able to read and interpret research that is relevant to classroom-teaching practices. These practices tend to lag behind research findings. Teachers tend to look to their own experience or that of other teachers for guidance in classroom practice. The importance of looking to research findings and the professional literature should be stressed in pre-service education. When campus- and field-based components of teacher education are integrated, the need to look to the research literature for guidelines to effective classroom practices is recognized by prospective teachers.

GRADING AND EVALUATION PROCEDURES

Grading Models

Feedback is a necessary ingredient of learning. Testing is one of many forms of feedback. It is a way of monitoring progress. It provides a reward for studying and achievement. It also provides information for students and teachers on how to redirect learning (Bergman, 1981).

Grades are another type of feedback to students about how they are progressing. Much has been written on the advantages and limitations of grades, but even those educators who advocate the elimination of letter grades do not advocate eliminating evaluation activities (Ebel, 1975). When grades are supplemented by written comments from teachers and parent-teacher conferences, they are a cost-effective, systematic method of reporting pupil progress.

Pre-service education should introduce teachers to commonly used grading models: norm-referenced, criterion-referenced, and growth; they are among the most frequently used models (Tollefson et al., 1976). The criterion-

referenced grading model was recommended by Salvia and Ysseldyke (1978) for use with handicapped learners. Tollefson et al., (1976) defined the criterion-referenced grading model as one that compares student performance to a content standard of performance. The implicit assumption is that the content standard is absolute across students who try to master the same set of objectives. Bergman (1981) distinguished "grading by absolute value" from criterion-referenced grading. Furthermore, Bergman distinguished two criterion-referenced approaches to grading: (a) criterion-referenced grading based on individual goals, standards, and needs, and (b) criterion-referenced grading based on past performance and degree of improvement. If pre-service teachers are expected to use the criterion-referenced grading model, they also should be trained in writing behavioral objectives and setting criterion standards of performance. In addition, they must be exposed to criterion-referenced methods of reporting student progress (Hofmeister & Preston, 1981; Lindvall & Nitko, 1975; Tollefson et al., 1976). Criterion-referenced grading models typically use charts or checklists to list the concepts and skills to be acquired and when achievement occurred rather than merely reporting a letter grade.

Advocates of criterion-referenced grading models argue that grades so derived provide evidence of progress for students at all achievement levels and, also, motivate students. The value of grades as motivator has been argued for decades. Feldmesser (1976) explained the motivational role as follows: "If a grade is to motivate, then a high grade must be a never guaranteed but ever possible outcome; a low grade, therefore, must be an avoidable but also every possible outcome" (p. 11). In criterion-referenced grading models, mastery of content to the criterion standard is theoretically always possible but never guaranteed. Likewise, failure is avoidable, but always possible.

Program Evaluation

Public Law 94-142 requires the evaulation of educational programs to insure their effectiveness in meeting IEP goals and objectives. Therefore, pre-service programs should acquaint classroom teachers with the variables that must be considered in evaluating such programs.

Hofmeister and Preston (1981) identified six dimensions that should be considered in program evaluation:

1. The nature of the change produced by the educational intervention as indicated by pre- to posttest changes in learner's behaviors.
2. The evaluation of the intervention impact as indicated by the degree to which the students are meeting the objectives of the program.

3. The treatment validity of tests used to prescribe educational treatment.
4. The relationship between test and treatment; specifically can the test be used to prescribe treatment and does the test data clearly indicate a starting point for treatment.
5. The quality of treatment as evidenced by empirical data about the treatment's effectiveness.
6. The relationship between treatment and curriculum and the extent to which treatment objectives overlap curriculum objectives. (p. 46-48)

INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICE

Instruction in the foundation areas of testing and evaluation must be both campus- and field-based. Campus-based instruction should include basic measurement concepts, test construction methodologies, and use of observational tools and reports from others, whereas field-based instruction should focus on supervised experience in assessment. Both are critical.

Field-based experiences could begin with a case study of a single child. The study would be developed from data in the student's cumulative folder and from additional information collected by the teacher trainee. Other instructional activities in the field-based experience could include diagnostic evaluation (of either a single student or a small group of students), development of formative and summative evaluation tests (for students in a classroom), study of the results of diagnostic evaluation and the development of instructional plans, and the adaptation of testing procedures to meet the needs of a handicapped learner.

Hands-on-experience conducting assessment activities is a critical aspect of the pre-service training program. Assessment skills are acquired from supervised experience, not by hearing how assessment should be conducted or watching others conduct assessment activities. Students must have the experience of conducting assessment activities and integrating assessment and instructional activities. I have repeatedly emphasized the theme that teaching and testing must be integrated into the instructional process. However, if teachers are to integrate testing and teaching, the teacher-preparation program should model the integration of testing and teaching.

SUMMARY

The enactment of Public Law 94-142 has brought far-reaching changes in public education and by so doing has also brought changes to the foundation areas typically included in teacher-preparation programs. Shifts in philosophy

have occurred from a selection to a developmental approach in evaluation and from using assessment data for prediction to using the data for decision making. With these shifts have come new test construction methodologies and new approaches to student evaluation.

Given that classroom teachers have increased responsibility for educating handicapped learners, teacher educators should place more emphasis on skill development and field-based experience. Skill in assessment is like skill in roller skating or bicycling: You acquire the skill by doing it, not by having someone talk to you about how to do it or by watching someone else do it. This is not to say that basic conceptual knowledge is not important but, rather, that field-based experience throughout the teacher-preparation program is critical to developing well-trained professional teachers who are qualified to work effectively with the heterogeneous population of students in our schools.

TEXT NOTES

1. Aptitude, as it is used here, refers to Carroll's (1963) view that "aptitude is the amount of time required by the learner to attain mastery of a learning task" (p. 725).

2. The practice of having curriculum specialists meet as a group to generate and agree upon objectives for a course or curricular area; it includes using objectives to develop evaluation instruments.

3. This material is excerpted from Tollefson, Poggio, & Glasnapp (1976), pp. 97-100.

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ANOTHER LOOK AT MEASUREMENT AND ASSESSMENT

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Tollefson's paper is organized into three content areas: a philosophy of testing and evaluation, a discussion of the testing and assessment skills that teachers should develop during pre-service education, and a brief description of evaluation and grading practices.

Essentially, in the first content area, Tollefson urges us to consider a developmental philosophy in presenting measurement concepts to pre-service teachers. Her developmental view of assessment, derived from Bloom and his associates, emphasizes the fullest development of each child. Testing, therefore, becomes a vehicle for understanding each student's aptitudes so that we can provide those learning conditions that will enable her or him to reach the highest level of learning possible. The second content area, by far the most extensive, includes various topics that clarify and elaborate on the use of a developmental approach in the assessment of children. A rather extensive listing of the types of knowledge bases and assessment skills needed by teachers is provided along with some suggestions on how these skills and knowledge bases can be acquired by pre-service teachers.

In building her case for adopting a developmental view, Tollefson offers a contrast with what she terms the "selection view" of assessment. Inherent in the latter are predictions about which children should be given what types of educational opportunities; when testing and evaluation are used for selec-

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tion purposes, the task is to determine who should remain in and who should be dropped from the educational system.

Assessment practices have changed considerably during the past two decades. Particularly since the passage of Public Law 94-142, there has been the recognition that we must greatly expand our assessment approaches. Tollefson sees in this expansion a much greater emphasis on individual child assessment for the purpose of establishing instructional objectives and remedial strategies, although we have not totally shifted our emphasis from the selection view. The selection approach to assessment will continue to be an important component of the assessment process. According to Wallace and Larson (1978) the two major purposes for conducting child assessment are (a) to establish instructional objectives and remedial strategies for those children who are identified as handicapped learners and (b) to identify and sometimes label for administrative purposes those children with learning problems who will probably require educational help. The second purpose is rooted in the selection view of assessment.

In all fairness to Tollefson, she does make references later in the paper (see section, "Interpreting Norm-Referenced Ability and Achievement Measures") to the need for teachers to be able to interpret the results of norm-referenced tests, the major tools of proponents of the selection view of assessment. However, she suggests that the reasons for knowing how to interpret norm-referenced test data include being able to supplement such data with achievement test results and planning IEPs for handicapped learners. Although, in the preparation of IEPs, norm-referenced test data may have some limited value to supplement more relevant criterion-referenced test data, the major value of norm-referenced data is in the identification and placement process.

The field of educational and psychological measurement certainly has experienced many rapid changes over the past several years. A concerted effort has been made to devise measurement tools that enable teachers to develop specific educational objectives and remedial strategies for handicapped learners. A criterion-referenced model has been rapidly replacing the norm-referenced model in assessments of the needs and skills of handicapped learners. However, the selection still may be a necessary component of an overall approach to assessment. Assessment for selection purposes should not be dismissed as outdated or of negligible value. Proponents of the selection view have made significant contributions to learning theory and to our knowledge of how children learn. Norm-referenced tests can be an important source of information on the individual differences of children, and they can provide some guidelines for identifying children with learning and behavioral problems. However, the tests do not necessarily provide definitive answers on how to remediate these problems. Therefore, we need more of a balance between the selection and developmental views of child assessment. The latter now is be-

ing given more attention in the professional literature as well as application in the classroom. This balance has been long awaited.

Tollefson's introductory paragraph to the second content area of her paper and the reference to Hofmeister and Preston's (1981) article set the stage for classroom teachers' increased participation in student assessment. The idea is very important. Teachers have long considered themselves to be second-class citizens at interdisciplinary team meetings where they are overshadowed by psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, and other specialists. Teachers generally have thought of themselves as "recipients" of assessment and evaluation results; with the increased use of criterion-referenced-type data, however, teachers should regard themselves as more significant members of the interdisciplinary teams. Not only do teachers have new assessment tools to employ but also they are the educators who spend significant amounts of time with children. Who, other than possibly the parents, are better able to provide important and pertinent child assessment data? Teachers, therefore, should take their assessment role seriously and work to further their skills in this area.

Under the heading "Test Construction Methodologies," Tollefson delineates three approaches to measurement: norm-referenced, criterion-referenced, and domain-referenced testing. Some authors (e.g., Swanson & Watson, 1982) insist that only two of these categories actually are necessary, that criterion-referenced and domain-referenced tests in fact are not different procedures and a better label for the two procedures may be "domain-referenced tests."

Tollefson also discusses the need to set standards to indicate mastery or non-mastery of content domains. The point is made in the discussion of possible problems with criterion-referenced tests. Understanding how standards can be set is most important to teachers and their students; standards setting is particularly significant in evaluating student progress. Tollefson refers to the judgmental methods developed by Angoff (1971) and others. Teachers should be made aware of the various considerations in assessing student progress and reporting to students and parents. Standards that take into account the need both to appropriately challenge students and systematically to reinforce their progress are crucial to individualized educational programs of high quality.

Considerable attention is given by Tollefson to major measurement concepts (i.e., validity, reliability) and assessment procedures (i.e., observation, self-reports, case studies, interviews, etc.) that are important for teachers to know. In her discussion of observation, I would like more attention given to systematic, direct observational procedures which many authors (e.g., Axelrod, 1977; Hall, 1974; Lindsley, 1964) regard as particularly valuable to teachers. Teachers see students in a variety of settings over extended periods of time, a particularly positive advantage that should be kept

in mind, and thus, teachers can define and systematically observe and record specific behaviors that are of concern.

When a given behavior is observed over a period of time (e.g., five days) fluctuations or trends in the behavior can be detected. An educational intervention can be instituted and additional observations made to determine its possible effect. Observation procedures provide teachers with a very important method for evaluating student progress over a period of time. Systematic observational recording procedures are easily taught to other school personnel who have contact with a particular student, as well as to parents and the students themselves, and thus data can be obtained in a variety of settings by different persons. As opposed to many other assessment procedures, which are often designed to sample somewhat abstract aspects of behavior (i.e., personality, intelligence, etc.), systematic, direct observation permits observers to record actual behavior in classrooms and other environments.

Two additional types of educational assessment procedures which are not specifically mentioned by Tollefson warrant some discussion. They are ecological and career assessment. Ecological assessment is based on the premise that a more complete understanding of a child's behavior can be achieved only by examining both child and environments in which the child functions (Smith, Heinsworth, & Green, 1978). The teacher, therefore, should become familiar with procedures for evaluating, for example, the child's curriculum, methods of instruction, peer group influence, and physical environment. Ecological assessment presents a most interesting challenge to the teacher and other educators who are responsible for child assessment. No longer is it enough simply to assess a pupil as if learning and behavior problems resided exclusively within him or her. Because environmental factors impinge on a pupil, their possible effect should be determined through a comprehensive ecological-type assessment.

The development of career education for handicapped children during the past decade emphasizes the need to prepare them for career opportunities through evaluation of their aptitudes, interests, and attitudes (Brolin & Kokaska, 1979). Career education approaches are particularly appropriate for handicapped children in mainstream classrooms. Educators are adopting career education as a workable solution to questions about students' futures when the students are no longer eligible for the public school programs or suitable programs are not available.

Career evaluation requires professional contributions from ancillary disciplines to answer questions about individual needs. These services typically include special teachers, psychologists, workshop specialists, social workers, physicians, rehabilitation counselors, and appropriately, handicapped persons themselves. Teachers must be able to interpret career evaluation data and use them in the development and application of IEPs. They also must be

ready to serve effectively on interdisciplinary teams by both providing and receiving career evaluation data.

Perhaps a most important section of Tollefson's paper is the one entitled "Experiences in Diagnostic, Formative, and Summative Evaluation Procedures." Here the author emphasizes that testing activities should be perceived by teachers and students as part of the instructional process. Tests should be used prior to, during, and after instruction so that a student's educational program can be modified to meet her or his individual needs. Teachers must be particularly aware of the importance of formative evaluation as they attempt to individualize instruction.

In the third and final content area of her paper, "Grading and Evaluation Procedures," Tollefson suggests that testing is a way of monitoring progress and rewarding the efforts of students. She also points out the value of using criteria-referenced grading with handicapped learners. This type of grading, which is based on individual goals, needs, past performance, and/or degree of improvement, makes it possible for each child to learn at his or her own pace and to reach for attainable instructional goals. The subject is an important one in the education of handicapped children. Other questions which might have been addressed, are (a) determining grades for mainstreamed children in regular classrooms; (b) combining norm- and criterion-referenced approaches in instruction; (c) minimum-competency testing movement; and (d) alternative grading practices.

In sum, Tollefson's paper is an excellent overview of the many important topics and issues in measurement and assessment that should be considered by teacher educators and their students. She makes a very strong case for adopting a developmental approach with a stronger empahsis on the use of criterion-referenced testing with handicapped learners. Her description of the evolution of the measurement and assessment movement appears to agree with recent literature, nevertheless, the selection approach in measurement and assessment continues to provide educators with important data for instructional and programmatic decision making. Some of the areas which she could not cover, given the limits on space, but which I consider important are the role of teachers in the assessment process, setting performance standards, systematic teacher observation techniques, grading and evaluation procedures, and career and ecological assessment.

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EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION WITH SPECIAL POPULATIONS

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ABSTRACT:-Underlying assumptions about the nature of education in general and handicaps in particular are explored. A course offering experiential education with special populations is described. The goals of the course are (a) to explore the meaning of experiential education; (b) to provide students with first-hand interactions with disabled people; (c) to so structure an experiential learning situation that students' assumptions about handicapped persons are exposed and challenged; and (d) to provide students with opportunities to understand how handicapped students can participate in a much enriched educational experience for all students. Because Public Law 94-142 is central to the educational tradition in America, schools will be more just and wiser if they accept the opportunities offered to them by the legislation. This argument is grounded in a philosophical perspective drawn from John Dewey and Martin Heidegger.

The passage of Public Law 94-142 marked the culmination of a development in American education that dates back to the Common School Movement of the 1830s and 1840s. The idea of a common school to educate all children has been one of the linchpins of the American democratic philosophy. The aspirations of children of immigrants, women, racial minorities, the poor, and, with the passage of Public Law 94-142, all handicapped children, have been directed to-

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ward the public school because that institution is thought to be the gate through which one passes into full participation in the broader society. One need only read the statute and the testimony given on its behalf while it was under consideration by the Congress, to understand how alive the common school ideal was, at least as late as 1975.

The teaching of foundations of education is important and it can be exciting. Students in teacher-education programs will be better teachers if they consider what may be the purpose of the educational enterprise that they wish to enter. They should be asked to think about the role of public schools in the American political democracy and society, the meaning of equal educational opportunity, healthy human development, the educative role of the larger society, as well as questions of purpose and meaning that relate to education. A teacher who has not confronted these issues of human value and meaning is greatly handicapped in the development of a successful and fulfilling professional identify.

Special populations provide the opportunity for experiences that can deepen the understanding of basic issues in foundations of education courses. I have developed and taught a class in "Experiential Education with Special Populations" which has been directed toward students enrolled in educational foundations and experiential education degree programs (see course syllabus at end of paper). The purpose of this class has been two-fold: (a) To make each student more aware of the experiences of handicapped persons and (b) to use this experience to illuminate issues in the broad field of educational foundations. The method for teaching this course has been broadly experiential. Students have been asked both to involve themselves in certain areas of experience and to reflect on that experience. The rest of this paper, I describe the content of the course and how this content relates to issues and goals that are appropriate to the field of educational foundations. I probe these issues and goals to demonstrate how experience with special populations may deepen not only a student's grasp of educational foundations but, also, at least to some degree, may clarify one's structure of meaning and values that give direction to one's life.

EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION WITH SPECIAL POPULATIONS

Part One

When I walk into a classroom on the first day of the term, students begin an experience that few have had before because few of their professors have a disability. Using a white cane, I come into the room, go to the rostrum, and take out my brailled class list to call the role. I tell the students that I welcome questions and discussion; and when they want to participate they simply must speak up to get my attention.

My aim is to provide them with a structured experience with a member of a special population that will be of a different nature than what most of them have had previously. As their professor, I have a different relationship with them than any relationship they may have had or imagined with another blind person. They must recognize the authority of my position if they want to receive a passing grade and get credit for the class. But, the authority of the position must be complemented by my ability and knowledge as a teacher if our exposure to each other is to be a positive example of experiential education.

I want the students to reflect on the meaning of a disability in our society. I want them to meet a number of people with various disabilities, and I want them to begin to understand the contradiction between the stereotypes of people with disabilities held by most members of our society and the reality of disabled persons' lives.

We start with a series of class exercises and a reading that will be the basis for class discussion. I ask the students to break up into small groups and to discuss what proved for each to be the most productive and significant learning experience: perhaps an adventure in a sailboat during a storm, a near accident in a mountain-climbing excursion, or a course with a particularly demanding and insightful teacher. The purpose of this exercise is to touch emotional and cognitive experiences and, to some extent, recover them so that the students will reflect on what is significant in learning.

Next, I take a head of lettuce from a shopping bag and ask the students to form small groups again to discuss building a unit of instruction around the vegetable. We discuss nutrition, irrigation, migrant labor, and transportation; we role play labor negotiations and we examine the interrelatedness of our urban society with agribusiness. One student may speak of her childhood in the Mexican migrant labor towns of rural Colorado; the class begins to think somewhat more deeply about the taken-for-granted aspects of everyday life. How much we take for granted each morning when we shower, brush our teeth, and dress!

The assigned reading is Ralph Waldo Emerson's essay, "The American Scholar," and we discuss it at the next class. What did Emerson mean by "man thinking"? Students comment on how deceptively easy the essay is to read. "But, how does nature teach?" I ask. "What kind of revolution was Emerson initiating when he stated that the activities of the milkmaid were as worthy of study as is classical learning?" Experiential learning must be grounded in the experiences of the everyday world. We must bring our assumptions to consciousness and to explore them. Few assumptions are taken for granted more than those governing our understanding of what it means to be a disabled person.

Diane McGeorge, President of the National Federation of the Blind of Colorado and a national NFB board member, comes to class. She brings two films: "We Know Who We Are" and "Blindness--An Emerging Minority." The first film follows three blind students at the Iowa Commission for the Blind through their struggles to acquire alternative skills and the positive self-acceptance that they need to live successfully. "We are a minority," the film says. "We know that the world has thought we were fit only to beg or to work in a sheltered workshop, but we know that isn't true. We will work together to change our position in society. We have begun and made much progress; we will continue the struggle and we will never go back." The second film, "Blindness--An Emerging Minority," focuses on an NFB National Convention. It shows scenes from the convention floor. Blind people are directing a large intense gathering. They are arguing the issues that affect their lives and finding time to help one another toward employment and independence.

The students ask questions: "Why does Diane use a dog-guide and why do you use a cane? How can one offer help to a blind person in a tactful way? What were your educational experiences as children?" Diane and I answer as clearly as we know how. Then we ask "Why did we show you these films? What were we saying about blindness by choosing them?" The class is somewhat confused. We discuss blindness as a personal inconvenience vs. blindness as a social role. A student asks, "What is the real problem that blind people face?" We discuss discrimination and, specifically, the NFB's role in expanding and defending the rights of blind persons to an education, to employment, to vote, to serve on juries, and to participate fully in all economic and civil areas of American life. Diane said, "You see, we believe the most important problem that a blind person faces is the attitudes of the public toward blindness. Sometimes those attitudes are accepted by the blind person himself, and sometimes the agencies that are available to help blind persons are permeated by those negative and limiting attitudes, so we must begin by trying to change those attitudes and to overcome those barriers to our progress that are created because of them. I was willing to come and talk with you because I wanted you to understand that as you work with blind children, your major goal should be to prepare them to overcome the barriers that will confront them as adults. You should recognize that whatever specific educational skills you may teach to a blind child will be useful only to the extent that you prepare that child not to fear or be ashamed of his blindness."

The National Federation of the Blind is a strong advocacy group. It has a clear and well-articulated point of view. It calls into question the taken-for-granted assumptions about blindness and it provides students with an experience with special populations that they are not likely to get in any other way. Students respond to this approach and they begin to think.

Subsequent class periods explore the work of the Boulder County Center for People with Disabilities. The Director, Judy Dixon, provides an overview

to the Center's program. The concept of a center for independent living is set forth. Pat Crittenden, coordinator of Personal Care Assistance, discusses the importance of personal care to severely disabled persons when they try to develop independent-living lifestyles. Rick Sprout, coordinator of Employment Programs for the Center, outlines the success that disabled persons have had in Boulder finding employment.

The class visits the Center's Independent Living Program. It is located in a small public housing project in Boulder. It provides an intense transition living experience for severely disabled adults who are seeking to establish independent living lifestyles. Judy Powell, the program's coordinator, explains the program and presents profiles of students who had participated in the ILP. The program's success is discussed.

Robert, a quadraplegic who had been injured in an automobile accident, and Betty, a brain-damaged person who had been injured in a fall from a horse, talk extensively about their goals for independent living. Robert tells us that after his accident he expected to live in a nursing home for the rest of his life. Betty relates her confusion with basic activities of daily living. Both make it clear that they now have much different expectations for the future.

These two severely disabled persons called into question the students' stereotypes about the humanity and potential of persons with disabilities. A number of students volunteer to work at the ILP. One student continues to work there through the following semester. It was not in any sense a class requirement.

Part Two

Societal perceptions of persons with disabilities can be examined by studying the presentations of disabled persons in the mass media, in particular, on television and in commercial films. The impact of popular culture on the development of our basic assumptions and the importance of the culture to American educators was discussed in connection with Lawrence Cremin's book, The Genius of American Education. Films that deal with themes relevant to disabled persons are shown in class. They provide the opportunity both to analyze films and to evaluate their underlying assumptions on the nature of specific disabilities.

"Accept and Excel," a film produced by Marilyn Van Derbur, addresses a seminar on the stated theme. Ms. Van Derbur argues, by using examples of personal triumph, that success in life depends on the acceptance of one's limitations and the transcendence of those limitations through hard work and a pleasing personality. This film is used for the discussion on how persons with disabilities may be dehumanized in the media. The blind man who becomes a golfer; the young man without legs who walks on his hands, is completing

college, and is married; and Sammy Davis, Jr., are examples of persons who overcame disabling conditions to excel. The humanity of these people, their underlying motivations, their struggles to establish self-identities, and any failures they may have had are not explored. The picture that emerges from Ms. Van Derbur's film is one of courageous, well-adjusted, super-successful individuals struggling against their fate to achieve what few able-bodied persons are able to accomplish.

Students in the class rate this film one of the most negative they have ever seen. The comment on the demand it places on people with disabilities to be cheery, courageous, and well-adjusted. The stereotypes of overachieving, happy, disabled persons are related to the stereotypes that are often held up to members of minority groups. The students note that we tend to apply this stereotype more often to disabled persons whom we do not know well. In fact, the stereotype tends to inspire so-called normal people to make demands on disabled persons. Some able-bodied person has always heard of someone with a disability just like the one the acquaintance has but that person has overcome the disability; and the message is, "Why are you having so much trouble and causing such problems? Why can't you be like that person and not feel so sorry for yourself?" Abstract models of behavior may help to ease an able-bodied person's feelings of discomfort and even inspire a few people with disabilities to overcome obstacles, but they prevent real understanding of the disabled person at hand. No matter how successful someone else has been, an employer must gauge the ability of the person at hand, and here another kind of stereotype threatens to come into play. It is the stereotype of the hopeless, helpless person who deserves pity and perhaps charity but is reaching for the impossible when he or she asks for the opportunity to prove his or her ability to compete on equal terms with intact peers.

"Diabetes--Focus on Feelings," a film produced by Dennis Passaggio of Pyramid Films, focuses on a group of diabetics as they struggle over a period of several months to accept their diabetes. The film explores their individual feelings in the context of the support group. It vividly presents their fear, rebellion against the disease, growing self-acceptance, general commitment to life, and ultimate ambivalence of the diabetic's situation. The students react with hostility toward the film and the people in it. They see the immaturity exhibited by a number of the participants in the support group. They view the anger as overdone. One student states that everyone seems to have a chip on his/her shoulder. The growing self-acceptance of the participants and general progression of the filmed sessions toward a happy ending is tempered by the fact that diabetes is a condition that must always be fought; to some extent a diabetic always will be rowing upstream.

I point out to the class the impact of diabetes on the life and health of people with the condition. The diabetic must inject insulin into his/her body

daily, maintain a strict diet, and eat frequent meals. The life expectancy of the diabetic is substantially shorter than it is for able-bodied persons. Furthermore, the odds are high that the diabetic will lose his or her vision, experience kidney dialysis, or lose a foot or leg, perhaps both feet and legs, through amputation. It is not unreasonable to expect real people, like those in the film, to express the feelings they did, given the nature of the condition with which they were dealing. I asked the students to compare the stereotype set forth in the Van Derbur film with their reactions to the film on diabetes. The class did not respond immediately but several days later a student remarked that he had glibly accepted the idea that disabled persons could live and work independently without thinking about the cost of getting to that point. The class was loud in expressing agreement with this speaker.

"Survival Run," produced by Magus Films, is a short parable on the human condition. It portrays a sighted man and his blind friend running in tandem in a Northern California race over an extremely difficult course. Many, many poeple are participating in the race. According to the film, the significant aspect of the event is not winning but, rather, finishing. The team of sighted and blind runners are followed by the camera through the beautiful and forbidding landscape, through fog, and along the ocean as they cover the course. They finish the race well up in the pack. Many do not finish. The clear message is that people working together can accomplish the difficult transit through life; things are not always easy and help is often needed, but fulfillment is possible. At the beginning and the end of the film the blind runner is shown using his cane to travel independently to and from the race.

Students commented on the beauty of the scenery and the balance of the film. They also remarked on the obvious competence of the blind runner which, with his need for a sighted friend and the independence before and after the race, were set in an appropriate context: the experience of special populations, which the course, as I structured it, was trying to provide for the class.

The students are given assignments to report on commercial films or television programs of their choosing which portray persons with disabilities. The TV programs "Little House on the Prairie," "M*A*S*H," "Archie Bunker's Place," and "Coming Home" are examined in four reports. Other reports take up made-for-TV movies that deal with mental retardation, leg amputation, and paraplegia. Students find that the media are filled with such programming; perhaps one of the most significant aspects of these class reports was the discussion of the advertising used to promote the films and TV programs. Words such as "touching," "sensitive," "delicate," and "inspiring" were common and the emotional appeal was clearly emphasized. A major portion of the content of these films and programs was the struggle to overcome the disability. Conflicts between a well-meaning but not always fully sensitive friend

and the proud but as yet not-adjusted disabled person often create the drama in this type of programming. Students feel that some of it is quite good but that the over-romanticizing of the disabled person smacks too much of the Van Derbur approach. Clearly, the media are providing a range of images of disabled persons with a good deal of frequency. It is important that teachers be aware of this influence on their students. The mainstream for handicapped children can be augmented by teachers who use such media programming to bring to the attention of their students significant aspects of the lives of persons with disabilities, but, first, teachers must have some idea of the reality of those lives and the assumptions that determine society's attitudes toward persons with disabilities.

Part Three

John Dewey's classic description of the University of Chicago Laboratory School, set forth in the series of lectures (republished in 1971), is the basis for a third and final part of the course. Although over 80 years old, Dewey's writings still point to some excellent teaching in and important thinking about experiential education. It presents an approach to teaching that so emphasizes history, the practical arts, social studies, science, and the fine arts that it lays bare the assumptions of our everyday world. Dewey's text discusses teaching in practical as well as philosophical terms and it examines the relation of school to society. It synthesizes many themes that were discussed in Parts One and Two of the course and points toward some specific classroom experiences that make up the final part of the course.

Nancy Clark is a blind teacher of a third-grade class in the Boulder Valley Schools. She came to the class to discuss her experiences as a teacher and a specific unit which she designed to introduce her class to concepts of disabilities and to disabled persons. Nancy related her experience as she progressively lost her vision. For a number of years she refused to tell her employers what was happening and she refused to use a cane. She did not want to use large print for the same reason. She found ways to adjust and, because she was in a teaching situation, she was able to disguise any problem that arose. When she finally tired of the charade, dwindling school enrollments were forcing the school to be restructured and Nancy was scheduled to be transferred to a self-contained classroom.

She was a tenured teacher with outstanding ratings from her principals, but the school district resisted placing her in a classroom. Five days before the 1981 school year was to begin, the Colorado Education Association called upon the National Federation of the Blind for assistance in the negotiations with the school district over Nancy's placement. These negotiations were successful. A reasonable accommodation was considered to be the assignment

of a part-time teacher's aide to Nancy's classroom. Although some negotiations continued for several months, the end result was that Nancy continued her teaching career with the same degree of success that she had previously experienced and she no longer had to conceal her disability.

Members of the class expressed genuine outrage that a teacher of Nancy Clark's obvious ability should have to fight to retain a position in which she had proven herself to be eminently qualified. Issues relating to classroom management, playground and corridor supervision, children's safety, liability of the school district, and working relations with other teachers were freely discussed, these issues were not the reason I had invited Nancy to visit our classroom.

During the 1980-81 school year she had developed a unit for her third-grade class that sought to acquaint the students with varous aspects of disabilities. She had invited a teenage boy with muscular dystrophy to her classroom and he and the children talked openly about his disability. He even told them that he would probably die soon. Indeed, a few weeks later one third-grader reported that the boy had in fact died. This sparked what she believed to be a truly significant discussion about death and dying.

She found some wheelchairs which she brought to class and permitted volunteers to spend the day in them. The children discovered the difficulties of architectural barriers present. Most enlightening to them were the attitudes of other children in the school. A boy who was particularly involved in the experiment found that he could not get the wheelchair into the bathroom. In playing out this situation he found that other students were insensitive to the point of laughing at him. They knew he was using the wheelchair only for that day, but they reacted to him as if he were permanently disabled. This attitude too sparked a significant discussion in Nancy's class.

In other experiments, some children were blindfolded, some used earplugs, and still others restricted an arm or leg. Outside speakers were invited to come into the class and to discuss their experiences as handicapped persons. This unit was geared to a third-grade class but it provided the students with the opportunity for experiential learning with special populations. It truly illuminated some of the assumptions taken for granted by children, and Nancy Clark provided the students in my class with an opportunity for experiential learning with a special teacher.

Melody Page, a professional actress who also directs a children's conservatory theater program in which students with disabilities are welcomed, came to visit us. In addition to sharing her experiences teaching special populations, she put the class through theater exercises to give them some idea of her teaching methods.

Theater and acting in particular, are thought to be areas that necessarily exclude persons with disabilities. There is the National Theatre of the

Deaf but, for the most part, able-bodied actors always perform the roles of persons with disabilities. In a recent play written by a blind woman about many of her experiences, directors working with the production of the play were very reluctant to allow her to perform. Some of the reasons are enlightening: She might loose her place on the stage; the audience would be so worried about her they would not be able to follow the plot; she would not be able to take direction because the director could not communicate with her; and she would not be able to refer to her script during rehearsal. These reasons shed light on many of the attitudes held by the public toward handicapped persons. Of particular note are the arguments that the audience would not be able to relax or to stop worrying about the blind woman on the stage, or to share the illusion she was trying to create.

Melody involved my students in simulated theater exercises which she uses to teach the creation of stage reality. She discussed with them her experience with a variety of disabled groups, including students with learning disabilities. Some of the problems encountered teaching the latter group were the use of language, reading, stage placement, and self-presentation. The use of theater activities provided a context in which LD students could find motivations, opportunity for success, and the development of important transferrable skills.

Theater is one of those areas where we think participants should operate with extreme precision. We do not believe that people with disabilities are capable of achieving that level of formal precision. Consequently, we do not think much of the chances of disabled persons to perform successfully. This stereotype, of course, is one that needs to be challenged. It says a great deal about what we actually think about disabled persons.

Students are asked to present class reports as final projects. These reports are based on experiential learning with special populations. Brooke reports on her summer's involvement with a group of developmentally disabled persons who had hiked and explored the plant and animal life of the foothills and greenbelt surrounding Boulder. Ingrid reflects on her experience as a Peace Corps volunteer in Africa, especially on the attitudes she discovered in Zaire toward persons with disabilties. John discusses his participation in an attempt to climb Mount McKinley in Alaska and some of the moral and medical dimensions generated during this climb when a climber was disabled by altitude sickness.

Todd is a blind student in the class; he is also a professional musician. He reports on his struggles toward self-acceptance and full independence. He discusses his childhood, his attempts to establish himself as a professional musician, the break-up of his marriage when he began to break loose from dependence on his wife, and his decision to come back to school to seek an advanced degree. He discusses independent travel, home management, and the at-

titudes of his roommates. He concludes his report by singing and playing an original composition in which sought to tell with music and poetry of his odyssey toward independence. The report and the music and poetry conclude the course. In their final reports the students make clear that they have changed many of their thoughts about disabled persons. Chris, a student from Australia, had come to North America to study and to prepare to establish a school when he returned to his country. He states that his school now will be quite different. He wants to include students with disabilities. He now thinks that they have the potential for growth into full adulthood, which he did not previously believe. He thinks that he can help them and that they will enrich his school.

PUBLIC LAW 94-142 AND EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

Regular classroom teachers have raised an almost unanimous chorus of objections to Public Law 94-142 in either its theory or practice. They have objected to the time and paperwork that is entailed in the development of IEPs. They have complained that they have inadequate support to integrate severely handicapped children into their classrooms. They have argued that they are not properly trained. They have attacked the ideal that severely handicapped children can receive appropriate educations in regular classroom settings, and they have argued, often vehemently, that the integration of severely handicapped children into classrooms detracts from the quality of the educational experience that able-bodied children receive.

Some objections are administrative in nature; others are grounded in teacher organizational concerns but still others are related to teachers' perceptions of handicapped children and to their values with regard to the purpose of the public schools. The field of educational foundations has a significant role to play in the study of the meaning and effect of Public Law 94-142. I am concerned most in this paper with the role of educational foundations in the areas of attitudes and values. At a minimum, an educational foundations program should assist future teachers to clarify their attitudes and values toward handicapped persons and their understanding of the purpose of public education. More important, educational foundations should provide students with historical and philosophical insights that can deepen students' thinking on relevant issues relating to a topic as important as the education of handicapped children.

Philosophical Questions Underline Public Law 94-142

The common school grew out of the democratizing forces in the American experience. Revisionist historians have advanced other less noble motives which, they say, played an important role in its development. However, in either

case the common school is understood to play a significant part in the creation of a single integrated society, culture, and nation. The intent of Congress in enacting Public Law 94-142 is the inclusion of a significant portion of the population in the promise of the common school. Schools are viewed as necessary institutions for the integration of handicapped persons into the national life. The findings of Congress, stated in the initial sections of the Act, make clear that many handicapped children have been denied participation in the common school. A major assertion of Public Law 94-142 is that handicapped children have the right to the opportunity to participate in public schools.

The philosophical content of Public Law 94-142 can be summarized in the following terms: each handicapped children has the right to a free, appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment consistent with an appropriate education; the manner by which an appropriate education for each handicapped child should be determined is by the development of an individualized educational plan; the IEP should be developed by an interdisciplinary team of professionals with the participation of each handicapped child's parents or guardians; and, finally, the parents or guardians must have access to due process procedures to challenge educational placements and programs. The preceding statements are rich with meaning. They are rooted deeply in the soil of American educational and political thought. Due process is grounded in the Constitution. A free, appropriate public education is intrinsic to the common school tradition. Individualized education is a dream of school reformers that has surfaced during each period of school reform agitation. The analysis of these traditions and constitutional guarantees provides the framework for a study of American educational thought and practice that is relevant to the field of educational foundations and, in a manner, goes far beyond consideration of the education of handicapped children. An important teaching technique in the field of educational foundations can be the use of Public Law 94-142 to open up and illumine many of the broader aspects of the American educational tradition.

On concept that is basic to the American educational tradition is that of equality of educational opportunity. Public Law 94-142 provides an important case for analysis. The concept of equality embodied in it is that of the necessity to treat differently persons who are different. This issue, perhaps more than any other, is controversial. The protests raised by teachers often go to this point. They object to the extra attention in and expense incurred by the special education program. Not only teachers but, also, many other people in the community question the fairness of investing a disproportionate share of educational resources in the education of handicapped children. They support equality of opportunity for all students but feel that no student should receive significantly more educational resources.

Public Law 94-142 institutes a program that mandates schools to allocate additional educational resources to each handicapped child. In this view equality requires that each handicapped child receive whatever he or she needs to maximize his or her educational potential. This is a philosophical question that needs to be explored in an educational foundations program. It can be related to the discussion of this topic that was so prominent in the decade after the Coleman Report. It also is a fundamental question in our educational tradition and, for that matter, in American culture and the nation.

In many school districts and states, and at the federal level, we are experiencing entrenchment in the special education area. The concepts embodied in Public Law 94-142 represent the liberal end of the ideological spectrum. Although, currently, we are in an era in which the conservative end of that spectrum appears to be in control, the teaching of educational foundations should be so conducted that it brings both ends of the spectrum into dialogue. Students should be challenged to think through their positions in the context of the American historical and philosophical tradition. The word "foundation" means the grounding of our fundamental beliefs and tenets. Issues should be explored in this light. Public Law 94-142 provides an excellent opportunity to push through to the foundations of our field. Its study can bring students in touch with a tradition that, although it may be interpreted in a number of ways, must be understood if a person is to develop a healthy professional identi.

Philosophy and Experience

The innovation in American education brought about by Public Law 94-142 provides both opportunities and problems. The problems are both practical and philosophical. In the preceding subsection some concerns of professional educators are discussed. Some of those issues can be alleviated by making available better support services to regular classroom teachers whereas others can be addressed by placing special education in the tradition of American educational thought and practice. But such solutions will be effective only if a more comprehensive vision of the purpose of education and of human life can be fostered in the lives and minds of those persons who are and will be our educators.

Experiential philosophy must be part of a good educational foundations program. It can be grounded in the American philosophical tradition of William James and John Dewey and supplemented with the European phenomenonological school, especially the work of Martin Heidegger. Problems in the Dewian framework present opportunities for thought. Our experience of the world brings us up against barriers. We pull back, think, find solutions and enter the stream of action again, but for what purpose? Heidegger wrote that

the purpose of human existence is to care for and tend to our environment and one another. Each educational experience should lead toward helping us to lay bare the assumptions of everyday life. We are asked to develop a conscious self-awareness of our relation to one another and the world around us.

Public Law 94-142 and the special education program it mandates presents the problems and opportunities to become conscious of the educational world in a new way. It als calls upon educational institutions and the persons who staff them to develop responses that are grounded in the care for others.

The course described in the first section of this paper sought to expose and reshape some underlying assumptions about our society's perceptions of and attitudes toward persons with disabilities. It provided some opportunity for students to see handicapped persons as having the potential to contribute significantly to the educational enterprise.

At a time when coping with our genuine limits is a national priority, the experiences of persons with disabilities can be instructive in the classroom. Virtues such as patience, strength of character, personal acceptance, and courage also are often demonstrated by such individuals. It is true that handicapped children may present teachers with problems in classroom management and extensive demands on their time and energy, but teachers with a deep understanding of life and education can use the presence of handicapped children to enrich the experiences of all children.

CONCLUSION

Public Law 94-142 challenges the field of educational foundations in two ways: first, it must deal with the claims on justice set forth in the legislation. Equality of opportunity, individual rights, claims for due process, and the participation in procedures of all concerned parties which the legislation seeks to establish must be grounded in a clear understanding of the tradition that produced the Act. A dialogue on the just claims of each individual to the scarce resources of society should be a goal of the field.

A second challenge is of equal importance to the teaching of educational foundations: that of wisdom. The education of handicapped children evokes the need for a broader understanding of the nature of life and the purpose of education. The presence of handicapped children gives teachers the opportunity to instruct students in aspects of the interrelatedness of all people, the need to care for one another, the limits of all life, and the genuine accomplishments that are possible for the human spirit. Wholeness, then is an achievement of the human spirit. Teachers who have the wisdom to use the presence of handicapped children in classrooms to enrich the lives of all children are of great value to our society. The field of educational foundations can make a modest contribution to the development of such wisdom in the teaching profession. The goal is worthwhile and we should strive toward it.

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SYLLABUS
Education 584
Experiential Education with Special Populations

Meeting 1
Monday - 20 July
1. Overview of the class.
2. Review of required readings and assignments.
3. Perspectives on experience.

Meeting 2
Tuesday - 21 July
1. Required reading: The American Scholar by R. W. Emerson
2. John Dewey and R. W. Emerson: two approaches to experience
3. What man is thinking: a discussion of The American Scholar

Meeting 3
Wednesday - 22 July
1. Required reading: "What is the National Federation of the Blind?"
2. Guest: Diane McGeorge, President, National Federation of the Blind, Colorado
3. Films: "We Know Who We Are" and "What is the National Federation of the Blind?"

Meeting 4
Thursday - 23 July
1. Required reading: "Personal Care Assistance: The Key to Independent Living."
2. The Center for People with Disabilities. Guests: Judy Dixon, Rick Sprout, and Pat Crittenden.

Meeting 5
Friday - 24 July
1. A visit to an Independent Living Program. Presentor: Judy Powell

Meeting 6
Monday - 27 July
1. Required reading: "The Genius of American Education" by L. Cremin.
2. A discussion of reviewing the public media.
3. A discussion of Cremin.

Meeting 7
Tuesday - 28 July
1. Reviewing films dealing with handicapped persons.

Meeting 8
Wednesday - 29 July
1. Discussion and review of selected television programs.

Meeting 9
Thursday - 30 July
1. Review and discuss selected motion pictures.

Meeting 10
Friday - 31 July
1. Report on a public meeting.

Meeting 11
Monday - 3 August
1. Required reading: School and Society by Dewey.
2. Goals of education: values vs. skills. What is it that children really learn?
3. How can school and society be integrated?

Meeting 12
Tuesday - 4 August
1. Learning about handicapped persons: a curriculum classroom approach. Guest: Nancy Clark.

Meeting 13
Wednesday - 5 August
1. Youth and the performing arts, and children. Guest: Melody Page and children.
2. What do children learn from extra-curricular activities?

Meeting 14
Thursday - 6 August
1. Student reports.

Meeting 15
Friday - 7 August
1. Student reports.

Outline for reviewing media:
1. What is the purpose?
2. What is the structure?
3. Are the parts integrated?
4. What is the style: visual, language, pacing?
5. Does the project succeed?
6. What is the content and its educational value?
7. What impact did it have on you?
8. Is there a difference between entertainment and education?

Outline for class reports:
1. Choose an educational project to observe.
2. Describe the activities.
3. State what you are looking for.
4. How was the activity structured?
5. What did the participants experience?
6. What was the educational value of the activity?
7. Did it succeed? Why or why not?

Course requirements

Class participation	25%
Class reports on observed activity	25%
Two one-page reviews	25%
Paper: five-page written report	25%

EXPERIENTIAL PLUS:

MULTIPLE PURPOSE FOUNDATION COURSES

Jesse Liles

James Madison University

Page describes a foundations course consisting of a series of learning experiences that involve pre-service teacher candidates with special populations and individuals. The purpose of this course apparently is to alter the value systems of the students. Such a purpose is legitimate and commendable. It is legitimate because researchers have demonstrated that being a good teacher and knowing well one's own value system are positively correlated (Combs, 1978). Page's attention to affective goals is commendable because it is accepted that a necessary but not sufficient condition for a mildly handicapped pupil to succeed in the least restrictive environment of a regular classroom is a teacher who does not unconsciously express negative feelings about exceptional individuals (Johnson & Johnson, 1980).

We must evaluate Page's paper in a much larger context, however, that of the specific challenges facing teacher education in American society. Teacher education is treated as a lesser profession in the sense that its practioners are often stereotyped by the public as less intellectually competent than are other professionals, and in the propensity of American society to assign to the accomplishment of the teacher-education mission monetary and other resources that are inferior when compared to those allotted to other professions which are no more vital to the well-being of our society. One cannot be a professional educator and avoid the continuing struggle to rectify these conditions.

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In teacher education a problem exists which, if it were to be solved effectively, would foster progress in the continuing struggle of professional educators to prove their competence to their publics and thus to secure a fair share of the resources and respect which American society currently distributes in such an unwise and inequitable manner. The crucial problem of teacher education is to secure adequate space in the undergraduate curriculum in order to teach, at the application level of mastery, the common body of knowledge that is essential to the successful practice of classroom teaching under existing school conditions (A Common Body of Practice for Teachers, 1980). That knowledge has been identified and it has been converted into teachable form. A body of competent professionals who understand how to transfer this knowledge to practicing teachers is in place in schools and departments of education throughout the country. For the most part, however, the curriculum space that is needed for the common body of practice either does not exist or is fractured into mutually exclusive blocks controlled by competing and often hostile entities.

Even in programs accredited at state and NCATE levels one observes that each separate certification is available to individuals who, at the conclusion of their programs, have shared an exceptionally small curriculum space. In-house program integrity often means that few graduates of a school of education have a common basis of study or experience in such vital areas as child development theory or classroom management and discipline practices. One graduate will have learned humanistically oriented child psychology and another graduate in another program will have learned behaviorally oriented practices (Institutional Report, 1981).

Two simplistic solutions to the problem of lack of space are no longer acceptable. Adding on more courses has reached its limits. Substituting professional education courses for other parts of students' programs has always been extremely unpopular. Professional educators must ask themselves what solutions to the problem of lack of curricular space lie within their control. I suggest that they, including foundations faculties, make better use of the curricular space that is currently available. Professionals can make every segment of curricular space serve multiple purposes. Clients of education courses should recognize these purposes as essential to the future ability to fulfill their many professional responsibilities. Only through the achievement of multiple purposes within the same time frame can professional education be assured of adequate curricular space to transfer the knowledge that has been gathered. Foundations experiences, including Page's values course in working with handicapped persons, must be evaluated in light of the conditions I have set forth. To make such an evaluation we must ask ourselves what multiple purposes a foundations course can achieve, especially with reference to special populations.

What would an experiential foundations course look like if it were directed toward multiple purposes? Obviously, a foundations experience can be directed to three types of goals: (a) The traditional, that is, cognition of facts, concepts, and relations drawn from scholarly disciplines, especially philosophy and the social sciences, which often are assumed to have been selected with special reference to their powerful implications for educational practice; (b) the one Page's students have an opportunity to achieve, that is, value development directed toward the professionalism so needed by a practicing teacher; and (c) what is most properly described as acquiring skills in the performance of that family of acts all teachers must be competent to perform if they are to be successful.

Suppose we were going to develop a foundations course that had the potential to achieve all three types of goals. Suppose, further, that in addition to being concerned with mastery of content from philosophy and the social sciences the course were to be experiential in nature and to focus on special populations. Could a course be designed that would adhere to these guidelines and, at the same time, be more complete than is Page's course, which I see as emphasizing only one of the three types of goals?

With reference to cognitions, a foundations course can address the problem of equality of educational opportunity at the theoretical and practical levels. It can provide opportunities for the development of positive values in relation to special individuals. It can emphasize the acquisition of problem-solving ability, a generic skill needed by all teachers. To achieve these goals through an experiential rather than a purely cognitive framework, a course must consist, as Page has demonstrated, of a series of learning activities. A tentative design for a multipurpose foundations course follows.

A MULTIPLE PURPOSE FOUNDATIONS COURSE

Unit One: Equality of Education Opportunity with Reference To Special Populations

Knowledge, concepts, and relations from philosophy and law can be used to create an educational experience with a powerful cognitive message. This message can become the answer to confusion about the standards and procedures which inservice teachers express when they say, "How will my grading policies be influenced when a special pupil comes to class?" or "My other students will suffer because I have to spend so much time with a special student." A foundations specialist can look into philosophy, especially ethical theory, for implications that can clarify or offer solutions to such problems.

Philosophers who write in the field of ethics try to identify rationally defensible principles which individuals can use to guide their conduct toward

right acts. According to one such principle, persons fulfill their moral obligations when they create beneficence. A teacher would be creating beneficence when he/she helps a pupil to fulfill a positive potential that otherwise would remain undeveloped. A second ethical principle holds that persons have a moral responsibility to insure a just distribution of that beneficence which they do create. Providing for a just distribution is necessary because no one person can do enough "good" to meet the needs of the world (Frankena, 1973).

A teacher wondering which student to help next has a distribution problem. Many teachers feel a powerful need to provide for a just distribution of the "good" they can accomplish in their classrooms. They are committed to fairness, but their ability to judge what fairness consists of is limited by their naive knowledge of a "fairness" guideline. A typical guideline says something like, "Alikeness of treatment is fair." Teachers who value this type of guideline are apt to resist individualized instruction and/or making their regular classrooms least restrictive environments for mildly handicapped pupils.

Ethical theory explains the three criteria of distribution which, rationally, can be applied to the problem of how to provide for a just distribution of the beneficence that an individual can create. Beneficence may be distributed according to merit or need, or equally (Frankena, 1973). Educational practices may define "equally" as "alikeness of treatment" regardless of differing abilities or interests. In a very real sense the teaching profession in American society may be pictured as moving away from primary reliance upon "alikeness of treatment," disguised as high standards, as a means of delivering equality of educational opportunity. The profession is moving toward individualization of treatment designed to create a realistic opportunity for all types of students to make achievements commensurate with ability and interest.

Close examination of ethical guidelines reveals that in order to achieve justice a teacher would need to match school settings with the distribution criteria rationally demanded by a particular type of setting in order that justice be achieved. Examples of rationally defensible "matches" of setting with criterion are (a) the merit criterion of distribution with voluntary-participation-type settings where competition is an announced factor and selections are based on public performance abilities; (b) the need criterion with situations that are so heterogeneous that some pupils are condemned to either failure or boredom (a concrete special case would be the situation in which a pupil has no possibility of reaching an externally defined minimum acceptable level of performance, i.e., faces certain failure on a minimum competency test); (c) equality as alikeness of treatment is appropriate in situations with a high degree of homogeneity; and (d) equality as unlikeness of treat-

ment to achieve existing potential is appropriate unless a defensible case for one of the other criteria can be made.

I would defend as most educationally feasible the standard of equality as unlikeness of treatment to achieve results at least congruent with a defined minimum acceptable level of performance because this standard best matches the situation most often found in public schools today (Fig. 1).

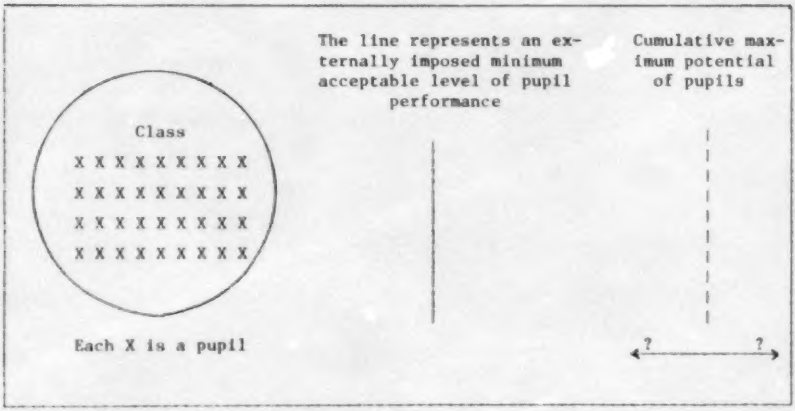
Class
X X X X X X X X X
X X X X X X X X X
X X X X X X X X X
X X X X X X X X X
Each X is a pupil
The line represents an externally imposed minimum acceptable level of pupil performance
Cumulative maximum potential of pupils
? ?

Fig. 1. Diagram of current classroom in which the standard of equality is unlikeness of treatment to achieve minimum acceptable levels of performance.

Most regular classroom teachers face such a situation. They have many pupils, each a different distance from a defined minimum acceptable level of performance, and each an unknown distance from reaching his/her full potential as a learner and person. Note also that in most cases the pupils and perhaps the teacher subscribe consciously or unconsciously to an "alikeness of treatment" type definition of fairness.

Determining what criterion of distribution will most effectively insure equality of educational opportunity in this standard situation is no easy task. Some teaching practices will cause the circle around the pupils (Fig. 1) to become a horizontal oval to the left of the line representing minimum acceptable level of performance; this situation reflects teacher and school system failure. Some practices will cause the horizontal oval to straddle the line; this situation reflects immoral conduct, especially if social class, race, or some other common factor is shared by pupils who do not reach the minimum acceptable level of performance. Some practices may result in a horizontal oval entirely to the right of the line. Is that success? Some prac-

tices would result in a vertical oval centered on the solid line. Is that proof of the extension of equality of educational opportunity?

Since the passage of Public Law 94-142 educators have faced an additional challenge: What happens to the standard situation and the distribution options when a special child comes into a classroom? I contend that a foundations class focused on special populations would be strengthened if its collective cognitive abilities were directed toward developing a solution to such a problem using concepts drawn from philosophy. While this problem is being considered the need for educational skills related to criterion-referenced grading, individualized instruction, peer tutoring, cooperative learning, and alteration of teaching materials and strategies would become apparent. An essential connection between the abstract theories of foundations courses and the concrete realities of methods courses could be established.

Another body of knowledge can be the source of cognitive problem solving for a foundations course focused upon special populations. "94-142" is a public law. As such, does it demand morally justifiable conduct from educators who would implement it? Do teachers who try to implement the law run the risk of being sued for malpractice? As a teacher, would you risk your job to try to make sure that your employing local education agency conforms to the provisions of the law and/or state statutes of a similar nature? These questions point to some of the moral dilemmas individual educators are likely to encounter when they struggle to conform to the provisions of Public Law 94-142. Resolving such dilemmas often requires the mastery of complicated sets of facts and relations as well as the application of moral principles related to beneficence and justice. What do educators need to know about the law's requirements for the construction of IEPs? Can such knowledge help educators resolve the moral dilemmas that inevitably arise when limited resources are legally required to be applied to the resolution of educational challenges of almost unlimited range?

I offer a brief hypothetical example of a specific problem that illustrates the type of dilemma many regular class teachers are facing. What would you do if your school's administration placed in your mail box a copy of an IEP for a special student along with a note saying that this student would be joining your class the next day? How many teachers know enough about Public Law 94-142 to realize that the law expresses a right for classroom teachers to be present and to contribute to the creation of IEPs? How many teacher-education graduates of the past several years, even knowing their right and duty to participate in the creation of IEPs, would insist upon exercising that right if the policies and practices of their employing LEA precluded such action?

The preceding situation is a realistic setting in which to pose an important question for the academicians who design and deliver foundations courses

in teacher-education programs: To what degree should foundations instructors attempt to move their students toward advocacy of the rights of handicapped pupils? Should foundations courses contain at least an opportunity for the careful examination of the content of Public Law 94-142? Should realistic case studies of the moral dilemmas that arise when professional educators attempt to implement the law be included in the foundations courses merely as an arena in which to provide for a study of the factual content of the law? Perhaps foundations instructors should overtly attempt to help teacher-preparation graduates to become advocates of the rights of handicapped individuals. I agree with the thrust of the ideas in Page's course where just by including an analysis of Nancy Clark's experiences he creates a setting in which the necessity for advocacy becomes obvious. Including in a foundations course a heavy emphasis upon the factual content of the law and the manner in which the courts have interpreted it can help to prepare professional educators whose knowledge of the law leads to a high level of confidence in their own role as teachers and advocates. Ignorance of the details of the law, especially as it defines the process of creating an IEP (Connors & Vaca, 1981), may result in a lack of confidence which, in turn, leads to a capitulation to the narrow policies of a LEA. LEAs are strapped for funds and, consequently, are often unwilling to engage in more than narrow interpretations of the letter of the law, thus ignoring the law's human purposes. For a first-year teacher to engage in professional conduct in such a setting is not easy task.

Unit Two: Valuing Experience Related to the Social Acceptance of Students with Exceptionalities

In the first part of his paper Page describes the learning activities of a foundations course focused upon exceptional populations. The course is correctly characterized as experiential in nature. I also would characterize the results of the learning activities in Page's course as primarily in the affective domain. Obviously, these results are related to the problem of what values toward handicapped individuals regular educators possess. Research and reason point to the conclusion that intact youngsters do not socially accept handicapped pupils in a classroom where the teacher possesses and/or exhibits negative values toward handicapped individuals. Hence, a well-balanced foundations course that contains a powerful affective component is essential. I do not wish to engage in a critical evaluation of the learning experiences described by Page. It seems entirely appropriate, rather, to praise certain aspects of the course which obviously have outstanding potential. The level of sophistication of Page's analysis of various productions related to overcoming handicapping conditions is outstanding. I take comfort in hearing a colleague point out that a certain danger is present when one engages in un-

critical acceptance of the idea that all handicapped individuals have a responsibility to overcome all the limitations of a handicapping condition and become "successes." Also of great merit are the opportunities he provides in the course for realistic interactions between students and handicapped individuals. Value theory applied to human relations problems indicates that when contacts between individuals and members of "unaccepting' groups are carefully arranged, the contacts have tremendous potential for promoting social acceptance based upon realistic knowledge. Page's experiential course certainly meets this high standard. It clearly has the potential to help students to prepare for situations which they will face as beginning professional educators.

Unit Three: Developmental Problem Solving Directed Toward the Individualizing of Instruction for Pupils with Exceptionalities

The addition of another type of learning experience, directed toward the achievement of a "skill" goal, would lend needed balance to Page's experiential foundations course. Remember that this balance is being sought as one of the few means teacher educators have to obtain necessary curricular space for the orderly transfer of an existing "common body of knowledge" from collegiate theorists to public school professionals.

When analyzing a course one may examine (a) its content: what potential impact upon the knowledge levels of students is intended? (b) its affective goals: what potential impact upon the value systems of the students is intended? and (c) how it is conducted: especially, will the manner in which the learning experiences are organized and delivered have the potential to help students to acquire any skill that integrates the cognitive and affective contents of the course? A balanced foundations course presents many opportunities to use the processes of delivery to help students to acquire skill(s). If we are to build upon Page's experiential foundations course to create an example of a more comprehensive foundations course, then we must identify for teachers an essential skill that relates to Page's focus upon exceptional populations and, at the same time, relates to the experiential nature of the course. What skills have been consistently identified by advocates of "experiential" education as critical and generic? What skills do regular teachers need if they are to apply, with a minimum of prior training, their educational and psychological knowledge to the situations that develop when regular classrooms become the least restrictive environments for special students? One such skill is problem-solving ability.

Since at least the 1940s (Axtelle, Benne, Raup, & Smith, 1942) problem-solving ability has been advanced as the most valuable skill an educated person could acquire. From a psychological point of view the justification for

the value of problem-solving ability is that it transfers. Obviously, a teacher-education program cannot teach specific answers to all the challenging problems that will face individual teachers as they pursue their careers. Indeed teacher educators do not even know for certain in what climate program graduates will ultimately exercise teaching skills. Neither can teacher educators anticipate with any certainty exactly what handicaps will be manifested by those pupils for whom the regular classroom will be their least restrictive environment.

Regular education graduates, therefore, need to be competent problem solvers who can participate in the construction of effective individualized educational experiences to fit the various competence levels of their pupils. This means fitting the information from evaluation procedures, formal and informal assessments, developmental theory, and pupils' classroom behaviors with the information and skills related to pupil performance, the nature of specific content and skills to be taught, the availability of materials and support services, and many other factors. The pieces of this "puzzle in motion" must be fitted together to provide an educational experience for a group of pupils--including those with handicaps--who have every right to expect and to receive equality of educational opportunity. Who would dispute that such a task requires problem-solving ability?

How can the teaching of problem-solving ability be brought into the context of procedures used to deliver a comprehensive foundations course? I suggest that a separate unit on problem solving not be included. Instead, the research data that shows how problem solving and other generic skills can be taught should be followed (Woditsch, 1978). The appropriate process is entirely "experiential." Foundation faculties can teach their students a problem-solving model at the beginning of a course (Hullfish & Smith, 1961) and then arrange the subsequent cognitive and affective experiences to provide opportunities for supervised and independent practice. Based on their experiences in such a sequence, students will discover that the characteristics of "good" and "poor" problem solvers are as follows.

These kinds of behavior accompany problem-solving failure:

1. Subject exhibits random attention. Unable to sustain focus on the critical variables of the problem.
2. Subject scans compulsively and haphazardly. Does not probe a complex problem until all its components are identified.
3. Subject fails to test known relationships (prior knowledge) against potential relationships in the problem. Does not make analogies.
4. Subject guesses often. Does not assign priorities to regularities sensed in the problem but follows the first "lead" that occurs.

5. Subject fails to check solution. Does not review problem to see if the solution constructed (a) works and (b) is the best alternative.

At the CUE (Competency-Based Undergraduate Education) Center, Bowling Green State University, we found it exceedingly interesting to note that a student could exhibit any or all of these failure-prone behaviors and yet amass a thoroughly respectable grade-point average. In an environment as rich in behavioral cues as the college classroom, mimicry will apparently cover a multitude of incompetencies....

Perhaps it will become more obvious that we are dealing with context-independent life skills if we transmit our failure-prone behaviors into their success-prone counterparts:

1. Selective attention: ability to control the class of stimuli that receive conscious focus.
2. Sustained analysis: a capacity to probe a complex situation until all its components are identified.
3. Analogizing: a capacity to test known relationships for similarity with those potential to a new situation.
4. Suspension of closure: assigning priorities to factors before shaping solution.
5. Autocensorship: testing a solution covertly, before affirmation.

It is difficult to imagine an area of purposive human activity that would not benefit by improved competence in these five molecular, hence transferable, hence generic, competencies. (Woditsch, 1978)

Problem-solving abilities will develop as students study ethical theory and its application to the challenges of providing equal educational opportunity. Foundations faculty members have only to engage students in seeking solutions to real or simulated case histories. Because the students are using ethical guidelines to act upon the case histories, in-class analysis of students' responses and actions not only will reveal which students possess the characteristics of good problem solvers but, also, will help poor problem solvers to acquire these characteristics (Whimbey & Lockhead, 1980; Whimbey & Whimbey, 1975).

Group work, especially that which pairs competent and less-than-competent problem solvers in proposing solutions to social-acceptance-type problems that arise in classrooms, will provide opportunities for the development of problem-solving abilities at the same time that the affective goals of Page's course are being achieved. Skill building in problem solving thus can be built into the manner in which the cognitive and affective elements of a balanced experiential foundations course are delivered to students.

CONCLUSION

Lack of adequate curricular space in which to deliver the existing common body of knowledge and skills relevant to the practice of teaching is a problem which teacher educators must struggle to solve. An analysis of Page's proposal for an experiential foundations course focused upon special populations suggests that foundations faculties can contribute to resolving the problem of lack of curricular space by designing and delivering balanced foundations instruction in which at least three types of goals are sought simultaneously. Such balance can be achieved by using identical or interlocking learning activities. Page's contention that a foundations experience can be appropriately experiential and focused upon exceptional populations is commendable. My response that such a course can reach important additional cognitive and skill goals is based on a valid argument. The opportunity is presented for foundations faculties to experiment with the design and delivery of such courses. It then will be possible to evaluate the contention that carefully integrated foundations experiences can be a successful method for solving the problem of lack of curricular space which so hampers teacher educators today.

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